GEOGRAPHY

OF

THE BRITISH COLONIES

AND DEPENDENCIES:

PHYSICAL, POLITICAL, COMMERCIAL, AND HISTORICAL.

By JAMES HEWITT, F.R.G.S.,

LATE LECTURER ON GEOGRAPHY AT THE TRAINING COLLEGE, BATTERSEA.

1864.

LONDON:

THE NATIONAL SOCIETY'S DEPOSITORY,

SANCTUARY, WESTMINSTER.

~~200. a. 117.~~

201. c. 166

Digitized by Google

PREFACE.

The object of this little work is to give such a sketch of the Geography of the British Colonies, as may fairly be mastered by Pupil-teachers, and by the Upper Classes in National and Trade Schools. In using it, constant reference should be made to a good map of the countries mentioned. In place of larger ones, those in 'The Scholar's Atlas,' and 'The British Dominions on a Uniform Scale,' published by the National Society, may be mentioned. The compiler has endeavoured, as far as possible, to bring the information connected with each Colony to the most recent date. He thought it advisable not to omit all mention of the Ionian Isles, though they will shortly cease to form an integral portion of the British Empire.

It will be observed that the matter which is most important in an elementary point of view, and which is most easy of comprehension, is printed in a larger type. When the book is employed as a class text-book, the first course of instruction should be based exclusively upon the paragraphs thus distinguished, which may be conveniently set as exercises to be committed to memory at home.

J. H.

Rottingdean,
Brighton.

Digitized by Google

CONTENTS.

Introductory.

Explanation of Terms, p. 7.—British Colonies: where situated, 8. —Early Colonization, 9.—British Possessions: how acquired, 10. —History of British Colonization, 11.—Growth of the British Empire, 12.—Table of Chief British Possessions, 16.—Varieties of Race among British Subjects, 18.—Uses of Colonies, 19.—Persons suitable as Colonists, 20.—Distances of Colonies, 20.—Government of the various Colonies, 21.—Laws, and Representative Institutions of British Colonies, 22.—Colonial Self-Government, 23.—Crown Colonies, 24.

British Colonies and Dependencies in Europe.

Heligoland, 25.—Gibraltar, 25.—Malta, 26.—Ionian Islands, 28.

British Colonies and Dependencies in Asia.

Aden and Perim, 29.—Ceylon, 30.—Hong-Kong and Kowloon, 30.—Labuan, 31.—Sarawak, 32.—Singapore, 32.

GEOGRAPHY OF BRITISH INDIA.

Its Position, &c., 33.—General Features, 34.—Rivers, 38.—Climate, 42—Minerals, 44.—Vegetation, 45.—Animals, 49.—Government, &c., 50.—Population, 60.

HISTORY OF BRITISH INDIA, 65.

British Colonies in Africa.

The Cape Colony, 71.—Natal, 85.—British Kaffraria, 87.—Gambia Settlements, 88.—Sierra Leone, 89.—Gold Coast Settlements, 90.—St. Helena, 92.—Ascension, 93.—Mauritius, 94.—The Seychelles, 96.

British Colonies in America.

Canada, 99.—New Brunswick, 112.—Nova Scotia and Cape Breton Island, 115.—Prince Edward Island, 118.—Newfoundland, 122.—Hudson Bay Company's Territory, 124.—British Columbia, 129. —Vancouver Island, 131.—Bermuda, 133.

Digitized by Google

THE WEST INDIES, 135.—Jamaica, 139.—Bahama Islands, 142. Leeward Islands, 143.—Windward Islands, 146.

British Guiana, 151.—Honduras, 154.—Falkland Islands, 156.

British Colonies in Australasia.

Australia, 157.—New South Wales, 166.—Victoria, 170.—South Australia, 174.—Western Australia, 177.—Queensland, 179.—Tasmania, 180.—Norfolk Island, 182.—New Zealand, 183.—Auckland Islands, 192.

Digitized by Google

GEOGRAPHY

OF

THE BRITISH COLONIES

AND DEPENDENCIES:

PHYSICAL, POLITICAL, COMMERCIAL, AND HISTORICAL.

Introduction.—THE BRITISH EMPIRE consists of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, together with a number of foreign possessions in various parts of the world, called COLONIES, but sometimes distinguished as COLONIES and DEPENDENCIES.

The word *colony* has been used in different senses. It was originally applied to a body of people who left their native country and settled in a distant land to inhabit and cultivate it, and who were then said to *colonize* * it. The word is now more often applied to a country that has been colonized than to the people that colonize it. In the time of James I. and Charles I. colonies were frequently called *Plantations.*

Explanation of Terms.—A Foreign Possession is properly called a COLONY when peopled mainly by settlers from some parent state, or by their descendants. It is properly called a DEPENDENCY when it is inhabited, for the most part, not

* *Col*, the root of the word, means "to cultivate." We see it in the word "Lincoln," the name of one of nine colonies established in England by the Romans, soon after the Christian era. The word Lincoln is a shortened form of *Lindum Colonia*, the name which the Romans applied to their settlement in this part of our island. As the names of the other Roman colonies in Britain are not frequently to be met with, they are here given:—

(2) *Camulodunum* . . .	subsequently called	Colchester
(3) *Londinium* or *Augusta* .	,,	London
(4) *Rutupiæ*	,,	Richborough
(5) *Thermæ* or *Aqua Solis* .	,,	Bath
(6) *Isca Silurum*	,,	Caerleon
(7) *Deva* or *Getica*	,,	Chester
(8) *Glevum* or *Claudia* . .	,,	Gloucester
(9) *Camboricum*	,,	Chesterford, near Cambridge.

Digitized by Google

by settlers from some parent state, but by natives who have become subject to another state. The distinction in the use of the terms *Colony* and *Dependency* is now often neglected, and both words are used as almost synonymous with *Foreign Possessions.*

Thus, Australia and New Zealand are, strictly speaking, *British Colonies;* because natives of Great Britain originally colonized them, and have formed states in them which are still subject to the government of Great Britain. India, Gibraltar, and Malta are, strictly speaking, *Dependencies*, rather than colonies, because they are foreign territories which have merely become subject to British rule. Canada was originally a French colony, having been colonized from France; but since it was conquered by Great Britain in 1759, large numbers of British have gone out from our own country and settled there, and it is therefore, in every respect, a British colony. In the same way the Cape Colony was originally Dutch, but was conquered by Great Britain, and so became a British colony.

Colonists.—The inhabitants of a colony are called *Colonists*, a name which they and their descendants retain as long as the colony continues subject to the parent state. A *colonist* should be distinguished from an *emigrant*. An *emigrant* is a person who merely quits one country and settles in another, whether it be a colony or not.

Above 260,000 emigrants have left Great Britain annually, on an average, during the last ten years. Of these, more than half have gone to the United States, and the rest mostly to one or other of our colonies; where, of course, they have become colonists. That portion of North America known as the United States is not now a British colony: it was so originally, but separated itself from the parent state in the year 1776.

British Colonies—Where situated.—Our Colonies and Dependencies are not confined to any quarter of the world, but lie scattered over all parts of its surface.

The common assertion, that "the sun never sets on the British Dominions," is strictly true.

It may be most simply illustrated by reference to a globe, or map of the world, in the following way:—

Since the earth rotates on its axis from west to east in 24 hours, the sun passes over 15° of longitude in an hour. Hence, about four hours after he has risen on Great Britain, he will rise over some of the British West Indian Islands, which are near the meridian of 60° west longitude. Two hours later he will be visible in the most western part of Upper Canada (long. 90° west), having already risen to Newfoundland, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, and Lower Canada. Three hours later

Digitized by Google

he will have risen on the most western part of the Hudson Bay Territory (long. 135° west). Three hours later still, when just setting on the British Islands, he will be rising on the eastern part of New Zealand (long. 180° west or east); and two hours after this he will have risen on Australia (long. 150° east). Two hours later he will be rising on Western Australia (long. 120° east); two hours later on Calcutta; an hour later on Bombay (long. 72° east); two hours later on Aden (long. 45° east); about an hour later on Natal and the Cape Colony (long. 28° east), and two hours later on Great Britain again.

Early Colonization.—The formation of colonies is among the earliest occurrences recorded in history, or handed down by tradition. Phœnicia and Greece were the two nations of antiquity most famous for their colonies. The Phœnicians established colonies all along the North of Africa, and also in Spain, Cyprus, and other places. Similarly the Greeks established them in Asia Minor, Sicily, and Italy. In later days Rome, Venice, and Genoa were also famous for their colonies.

The establishment of colonies in distant parts of the world by European nations during the sixteenth century was one of the most important events in the history of the world. The Portuguese were the first to lead the way. Their settlements extended all along the shores of the Indian Ocean, and were all made for the purpose of trade. In Africa, their chief stations were *Mozambique* and *Sofala*. In Asia they held *Muscat* and *Ormuz* at the entrance of the Persian Gulf; on the coast of India, *Daman*, *Diu*, *Cochin*, and other places; and east of the Bay of Bengal, *Malacca*, *Ternate* and *Tidore*. The central point of their dominion was Goa. Their authority for taking possession was a bull of Pope Sixtus IV., in 1481, which granted to the Crown of Portugal all the countries that the Portuguese might discover east of a certain meridian.

The discoveries and conquests of Spain were made chiefly for the purpose of acquiring gold and silver, and not for the sake of colonization. From the first the Spaniards sought only to enrich themselves and their country by robbing the natives, and by forcing them to work. Hayti was long the chief of their stations, on account of the gold mines of the Cibao Mountains. Afterwards they acquired Mexico and Peru.

Immediately that interest was excited in Europe by the discoveries of Columbus, the desire to acquire new territories became uppermost in the minds of the Portuguese, Spanish, English, and French. Numerous expeditions were fitted out

Digitized by Google

with almost the sole intent of discovery and annexation. The Portuguese and Spaniards founded their claims on the grants of the Pope, who, as supreme and general master, had intrusted to them the conversion of the heathen. The French and English based their claims upon the right of discovery.

But, though the notions of the first colonists were very limited as to the real value of colonies, the consequences of the system of colonization were of the greatest importance, for they led to a total change in the direction of commerce throughout the world. The overland traffic of Europe, Egypt, and Western Asia was almost discontinued after the discovery of the passage round the Cape by Bartholomew Diaz in 1497; and commerce passed from the Mediterranean to Western Europe, which then acquired that importance it has since not ceased to maintain. Venice and Genoa, up to that time the rival queens of Southern Europe, both fell from the proud station they had occupied, and resigned to others the superiority which they had previously enjoyed.

It would appear that the English are the only people of modern times, who can colonize on a large scale successfully. Of European nations, besides the English, that formerly possessed a large colonial empire, the Dutch have retained more than any other. The Spanish, Portuguese, and French, who once had extensive foreign possessions both in the old and new world, subsequently lost them again, almost all.*

British Possessions—How acquired.—The British Possessions have been acquired in various ways :—some by *conquest* from

* The chief foreign possessions of the Dutch are:—In Asia, the splendid island of Java, the greater part of Celebes, portions of Sumatra and Borneo, the Moluccas, part of Timor, Banca, Billiton, and some other islands; in Africa, some forts on the Guinea Coast; and in America, Surinam, and some of the West India Islands; the entire population being upwards of 16,000,000.

Spain has lost her vast dominions in Mexico and South America, but still retains Cuba, Porto Rico, and a few small islands in the West Indies; in Asia she has the Philippine, Ladrone, and Caroline Islands; and in Africa, Ceuta, Melilla, and the Canary Islands: the total population of the colonial empire being about 4,000,000.

The Portuguese have lost Brazil, but still possess,—in Asia, Macao, the northern part of Timor, and the towns of Goa, Daman, and Diu; and in Africa, the Azores, Madeira, the Cape Verde, and other islands. They continue also to exercise authority over a considerable portion of South Africa. The total population of their foreign possessions is estimated at under 3,000,000.

France possesses Algeria, with some stations on the Senegal and on the Gold Coast, in Africa; five towns in India; a portion of Cochin China; the island of Bourbon in the Indian Ocean; Martinique, Guadaloupe, and a few other small islands in the West Indies; French Guiana in South America, and New Caledonia the Marquesas, and Tahiti in the Pacific Ocean: the total population being about 4,500,000.

Digitized by Google

the European powers, *e. g.*, Gibraltar, the Cape Colony;—some by *cession*, that is, they have been given up to the British Crown by *treaty*, *e. g.*, the Ionian Islands, Labuan;—some by *purchase*, *e. g.*, New Zealand and Aden;—and some by *settlement*, *i. e.*, British subjects have gone out and colonized an almost uninhabited country, *e. g.*, Australia.

History of British Colonization.—The foundation of the Colonial Empire of Great Britain must be dated from the time of Henry VII. Immediately after the discovery of the West Indies by Columbus, an expedition was fitted out by Henry VII. under John Cabot, a wealthy Venetian merchant living at Bristol, and Sebastian his son, for the purpose of finding a north-west passage to India. They were instructed "to search for islands, countries, and regions before unseen by Christian people; to affix the banners of England on any city, island, or continent they might find; and, as vassals of the English crown, to possess and occupy any territories they might discover." They set out in 1497, and on June 24th of that year discovered Newfoundland, and soon afterwards Labrador; reaching the continent of America, fourteen months before Columbus saw the mainland, and thus giving to England a claim to North America in right of its first discovery by the English nation. The valuable fisheries off Newfoundland, which Cabot made known, were soon visited by French, Spanish, Portuguese, and English ships. No colony, however, was attempted to be formed until the time of Queen Elizabeth. Sir Humphrey Gilbert led a company of colonists to Newfoundland in 1583, and took possession of the country; but no settlement was made, and the adventurers returning home were lost. In 1584, Sir Walter Raleigh discovered Virginia, and next year he took out 108 colonists, whom he settled at the mouth of the Roanoke. This was the first actual occupation of territory by English in America; but, like several settlements afterwards made, it proved unsuccessful, and one really permanent was not effected until 1607, when James Town on the river James was founded. On Dec. 21st, 1620, the 'Pilgrim Fathers,' as they are called, landed at New Plymouth, and established the New England colony. Various settlements were made from time to time after this, not only in America, but in other parts of the world.

The North American colonies founded by Great Britain (those named in italics in the following table) were the consequence of emigration, either voluntary, or (as was more

Digitized by Google

commonly the case,) produced by religious persecution and civil war at home. The Puritans, following in the wake of the Pilgrim Fathers, went to New England; the Quakers to Pennsylvania; and the Cavaliers to Virginia. They formed communities under charters from the crown, and had local legislatures, but were still subject to the sovereignty of the mother country. In 1776, however, they revolted and formed themselves into an independent republic which, until the breaking out of the civil war in 1861, went on increasing till it embraced the greater part of the southern half of North America. The result of that war, unhappily still continued, will most probably be the permanent establishment of two or more independent republics, according as commercial and other interests may lead the separate States to combine.

Growth of the British Empire.—The enormous Colonial Empire of Great Britain is one of quite modern growth. When George III. ascended the throne in 1760, *i. e.* about a century ago, the population of the British Empire did not number 12,000,000, inclusive of the colonies. It now numbers no less than 235,000,000. The British Dominions at present comprise:—

In Europe, an area of 120,000 square miles,* with a population of nearly 30,000,000.

In India (including the territories of subject native princes), an area of 1,740,000 square miles, *i. e.*, 19 times the area of Great Britain, with a population of 195,000,000.

In Ceylon, an area equal to half that of England, with a population of nearly 2,000,000.

In Australia and New Zealand, an area equal to that of Europe, with a population of about 1,400,000.

In North America, an area 30 times that of Great Britain, with a population of about 4,000,000.

In the West Indies, Honduras and Guiana, an area exceeding that of Great Britain, with a population of 1,100,000.

In South Africa, an area more than three times that of Great Britain, with a population of nearly 500,000.

In West Africa, an area equal to half that of England, with a population of 400,000.

To these may be added Mauritius, and other small islands, giving a total population to the British Dominions of nearly 235,000,000 (see pp. 16-18); so that the British Empire is the

* All statements of distance and area in this work are given in statute miles.

Digitized by Google

most populous in the world, next to the Chinese (400,000,000), comprising within it one-fifth of the whole human race. The Russian Empire, which occupies about the same area, contains a population of only 65,000,000.

The foreign possessions of England in 1760 were limited to Gibraltar, a few of the West Indian Islands, and the colonies of North America which now form part of the United States.

In 1756, *i. e.* four years before the accession of George III., twenty-three Englishmen—the sad remnant of 146 prisoners confined in the Black Hole of Calcutta—were the only subjects of the Crown of England in Bengal; Canada and several of our West India Islands were in the possession of France; the Cape Colony belonged to the Dutch; Australia and New Zealand were hardly known to us, even by name.

As the result of English colonization, it may be stated that the total population in the Old and New World who speak the English language, is estimated at about one hundred millions.

The gradual growth of the British Colonial Empire is shown in the following table:—

Discovery of Newfoundland, Labrador, New Brunswick, Cape Breton, Nova Scotia, and neighbouring regions in North America, by Cabot and others, in right of which England claimed portions of the continent and of the fisheries of North America. Reigns of Henry VII., Henry VIII., and Edward VI.

*Virginia** named and taken possession of (1584–5) during the reign of Elizabeth 1558–1603

Bermuda (1609); Gambia and Gold Coast districts (1618); *Massachusetts*, the first of the New England states (1620); St. Kitts (1623); and *New Hampshire*;—all added by settlement; and the first permanent settlement in Newfoundland effected (1623); Barbados (1624);—in the reign of James I. 1603–1625

Nevis and Barbuda (1628); the Bahamas (1629); Antigua and Montserrat (1632); *Connecticut* (1633); *Maryland* (1634) and *Rhode Island* (1636);—added by settlement in the reign of Charles I. 1625–1649

North Carolina (1650), added by settlement; Jamaica captured from the Spaniards (1655); and Anguilla settled (1659);—during the Commonwealth 1649–1660

Delaware ceded by the Dutch (1664);—Tortola and some other of the Virgin Isles (1666), *South Carolina* (1680), and *Pennsylvania*

* Those territories, the names of which in the following list are in italics, do not now form part of the British Empire.

Digitized by Google

(1681), added by settlement; Honduras (1670) by treaty with Spain; the Hudson Bay Territory granted (1667) to a company by the King; St. Helena ceded by the Dutch (1673); *New York* and *New Jersey* also ceded by them (1674);—during the reign of Charles II. 1660–1685

Gibraltar taken (1704) from the Spaniards, during the reign of Queen Anne 1702–1714

Georgia, added by settlement (1753); Battle of PLASSEY in Bengal (1757), from which dates the rise of our INDIAN EMPIRE; Canada taken from the French (1759); — during the reign of George II. 1727–1760

Treaty of Fontainebleau (1763), by which France ceded Canada, Cape Breton, Nova Scotia, and other districts in America, which had been colonized by the French; together with Tobago, Grenada, St. Vincent, and Dominica, in the West Indies; and Senegal in Africa; and Spain also ceded *Florida* and other territories in America. Falkland Islands annexed by settlement (1766). Declaration of Independence of the thirteen United States of America (1776), by which they became lost to us. Sierra Leone, New South Wales and its dependency, Norfolk Island, added by settlement (1787); Andaman Islands taken possession of by the East India Company (1789) for the purpose of founding there a penal settlement; Seychelles taken from the French (1794); Ceylon taken from the Dutch (1796); Trinidad taken from the Spaniards (1797); Malta, with Gozo and Comino, taken from the French (1800); Guiana taken from the Dutch (1803); St. Lucia taken from the French (1803); Tasmania settled (1803); the Cape Colony taken from the Dutch (1806); Auckland Islands discovered (1806); Heligoland taken from the Danes (1807); Mauritius taken from the French (1810); Ionian Islands ceded to Great Britain (1815); Ascension Island annexed (1815); and a considerable portion of India.—Reign of George III. 1760–1820

Singapore purchased (1824); various portions of India, particularly Assam, Arracan, and the Tenasserim Provinces ceded (1826); Western Australia added by settlement (1829);—during the reign of George IV. 1820–1830

Victoria colonized (1835) and South Australia added by settlement (1836)—in the reign of William IV. 1830–1837

Aden taken (1839); New Zealand made a colony (1839); Falkland Islands colonized (1840); Hong Kong ceded by the Chinese (1842); Natal proclaimed a British colony (1843); various portions of India annexed, particularly Sinde (1843), the Punjab (1849), Nagpore (1855) and Oude (1856); Labuan ceded (1846); Vancouver Island settled by the Hudson Bay Company (1849); Danish possessions on the Gold Coast purchased (1850); Victoria separated from New South Wales and made a separate colony (1851); British Columbia made a colony (1858); Queensland separated from New South Wales and

Digitized by Google

made a colony, and Perim occupied (1859); British Kaffraria made independent of the Cape Colony (1860); Kowloon added to Hong Kong by treaty with the Chinese (1860); Lagos ceded by its King (1861);—in the reign of Victoria .. .. since 1837

We should regard the unsuccessful attempts at colonization in the time of Elizabeth as precursors of those made with such success in after years. The reign of James I. was peculiarly fitted by the state of parties, both in a political and religious sense, to encourage emigration, and it was during that period that settlers first left England in considerable numbers.

The troublous times of Charles I. caused many persons to leave a country in which they were liable to be punished for holding opinions opposed to those of the Sovereign and his ministers. Under the Commonwealth, many Royalists, who would not acknowledge nor submit to Cromwell, regarding him as Charles's murderer, retired to America (Carolina), where they could acknowledge Charles II. in safety. Numbers of Irish Roman Catholics, taken in Cromwell's Irish campaigns, as well as the Scotch prisoners captured at Dunbar, 1650, and the English Royalists at Worcester, 1651, were sold to labour in the American plantations, much like ordinary slaves. In the reign of Charles II. a considerable emigration of Cromwellites took place, the exiles settling chiefly in New England. Thus it was that two parties, entirely opposed to each other in religion and politics, but coming of the same stock, speaking the same language, and influenced by the same motives, viz., greater political and religious freedom, sought and obtained an asylum in America. The difference in principles marking the colonists in different parts of the continent has never since ceased to exist, so that, whereas the people of the Southern States are aristocratic, conservative, and episcopalian, those of the Northern States are democratic and nonconformist. Under climatic and other influences this divergence of opinions grew stronger and stronger, and finally reached its climax in the great struggle for independence unhappily still (1864) raging in America.

Digitized by Google

Table of the Chief British Foreign Possessions, with their Population, and the Seat of Government in each.

EUROPE.

Name of Colony.	Seat of Government.	Estimated Population.
Heligoland	Heligoland	2,000
Gibraltar	Gibraltar	16,000
Malta, Gozo, and Comino ..	Valetta	143,000
Ionian Islands	Corfu	232,000
		393,000

ASIA.

India*	Calcutta	195,000,000
Ceylon	Colombo	1,870,000
Labuan	Labuan	2,000
Hong Kong and Kowloon ..	Victoria	100,000
Aden and Perim	Aden	50,000
		197,022,000

AFRICA.

Cape Colony	Cape Town	264,000
British Kaffraria	King William's Town	50,000
Natal	Pieter Maritzburg ..	153,000
Gambia	Bathurst	6,700
Sierra Leone	Freetown	42,000
Gold Coast	Cape Coast Castle ..	300,000
St. Helena	James Town	6,800
Ascension	George Town	500
Mauritius	Port Louis	310,000
Seychelles, Amirante, and Chagos Isles	Victoria	9,000
		1,142,000

* Managed, not by the Colonial Office, but by a special board, called the "India Board."

NORTH AMERICA.

Name of Colony.	Seat of Government.	Estimated Population.
Canada	Ottawa	3,000,000
New Brunswick	Fredericton	250,000
Nova Scotia and Cape Breton	Halifax	331,000
Prince Edward Island	Charlotte Town ..	81,000
Newfoundland	St. John's	125,000
Bermuda	St George	11,000
British Columbia	New Westminster ..	40,000
Vancouver Island	Victoria	25,000
Hudson Bay Territory* ..	.. ..	120,000
		3,983,000

WEST INDIES AND SOUTH AMERICA.

Jamaica		Kingston	441,300
Turks and Caicos Islands ..		Turks Island	4,500
Bahamas		Nassau	35,300
Leeward Islands.	Antigua	St. John's	37,100
	Dominica	Roseau	25,100
	St. Christopher	Basseterre	24,400
	Montserrat	Plymouth	7,100
	Nevis	Charlestown	9,800
	British Virgin Islands	Tortola	9,200
	Barbuda	.. ..	400
	Anguilla	Anguilla	800
Windward Islands.	Barbados	Bridgetown	152,700
	Grenada	St. George	31,900
	St. Vincent	Kingstown	31,800
	Tobago	Scarborough	15,400
	St. Lucia	Castries	26,300
Trinidad		Port of Spain	84,400
British Guiana		Georgetown	150,000
Honduras		Belize	26,000
Falkland Islands		Stanley	500
			1,114,000

* Managed by the Hudson Bay Company, not by the Colonial Office.

AUSTRALASIA.

Name of Colony.	Seat of Government.	Estimated Population.
New South Wales	Sydney	350,000
Queensland	Brisbane	30,000
Victoria	Melbourne	550,000
South Australia	Adelaide	136,000
Western Australia	Perth	20,000
Tasmania and Norfolk Island	Hobart Town	90,000
New Zealand, Chatham, and Auckland Islands	Auckland	170,000
		1,346,000

4. The following summary will give approximately the total population of the British Empire.

British Possessions in Europe	393,000
,, ,, Asia	197,022,000
,, ,, Africa	1,142,000
,, ,, North America	3,983,000
,, ,, West Indies and South America	1,114,000
,, ,, Australasia	1,346,000
British Foreign Possessions	205,000,000
British Islands	30,000,000
TOTAL POPULATION OF BRITISH EMPIRE ..	235,000,000

Varieties of Race among British Subjects.—Great Britain has acquired the sovereignty over more than one-seventh of the habitable globe, and about one-fifth of the total population of the globe acknowledge Victoria as their Queen. Among them are *French* in Canada and the Mauritius; *Italians* in Malta; *Greeks* in the Ionian Islands; *Dutchmen* in the Cape Colony and Guiana; *Hindoos*, *Mahometans*, *Parsees*, and *Sikhs* in India; *Burmese* and *Malays* in Further India; *Chinese* in Hong Kong, Singapore, and Australia; *Negroes* in Africa and the West Indies; *Indians*, still half wild, in North America; *Kaffirs*, *Hottentots*, and *Bushmen* at the Cape; and *New Zealanders* who, thirty years ago, were cannibals.

The British Empire includes men of every hue—black, brown, yellow, and copper-coloured, as well as white; and almost every form of religion—Christian, Jewish, Mohammedan, Hindoo, and Pagan—is

Digitized by Google

professed by one or other of the hundreds of millions of motley British subjects.

Uses of Colonies.—The advantages conferred by colonies on the mother country are great though indirect, *i. e.*, though not arising in the shape of direct payments of money for protection afforded. One of the most valuable is, that they furnish a new home for thousands of poor who find it a hard struggle to live in their own country: Canada, the Cape Colony, Australia, and New Zealand, are most worthy of notice in this relation. Others are valuable as stations to shelter our fleets, and consequently to protect our commerce: Heligoland, Gibraltar, Malta, and Mauritius belong to this class. Others are valuable as trading stations, in which raw produce may be collected from surrounding countries, or from which English goods may be distributed to them: Singapore and our West African possessions belong to this class. Others are particularly valuable as stations, or half-way houses as it were, at which ships may call to take in water, or provisions, or coal: Gibraltar, St. Helena, Mauritius, Aden, and the Falkland Islands are excellent examples of this kind.

Without transmarine possessions no modern nation has held, or can hold, dominion of the sea; and without dominion of the sea it is impossible for a small island like Great Britain to maintain her place amongst the nations.

It is worthy of notice that so long as Spain, Portugal, Holland, and even Venice and Genoa, held dependencies which were separated from them by the sea, so long were those nations great, powerful, and prosperous; but that from the moment they ceased to hold colonies, they declined in the scale of nations.

When a colony has been matured, it is frequently of advantage that it should be severed from the parent state. No one can doubt that the separation of the United States from Great Britain towards the close of last century has materially benefited our own country in the extension of our trade, and has contributed to the more speedy advance of civilization throughout the world.

It is to the immense population of the Colonial Empire of Great Britain, that a considerable share of her commerce and wealth, and no mean portion of her power and prosperity are due. Without her Colonies she would not have such facilities as she now possesses for purchasing sugar, tea, coffee, cotton, wool, silk, wine, timber, tobacco, indigo, dyes, drugs, skins, hides, furs, oil, horns, ivory, gum, gold, rice, and numerous other articles that she imports; and most certainly she would not have such extensive markets for the export and sale of

Digitized by Google

her manufactures. By her Colonies the surpassing greatness of England has been developed, her mighty power consolidated, the decay of her population checked, her language diffused, and the unity of the nation strengthened. Whether we look at them as dependencies in the sense of affiliations, or as colonies in the radical meaning of the term, implying "workers and co-operators" with ourselves, let us regard them with care and protection, and they will be to us "the bulwarks of an empire" whose flag floats over colonial possessions of a magnitude undreamt of by the most ambitious of Greek or Roman conquerors.

In the enormous trade which she carries on with her colonies a great quantity of shipping is employed, and consequently a vast number of sailors are educated, who, in thus ministering to the wants of the parent state, become fitted to man her fleets and to prove the defenders, if need be, of the homes of their countrymen.

Persons suitable as Colonists.—Owing to the thinness of the population, compared with the size of many of our large colonies,—such as the Cape, New Zealand, and those of Australia, and North America,—labour in them is very scarce, and there is, therefore, a constant demand for immigrants.

Labour and capital are the two great requirements of our colonies. They offer in return high wages and cheap land. The kinds of people who are especially wanted are labourers of all sorts, and more particularly farm servants who can plough, sow, reap, and fence; artizans, such as carpenters, masons, smiths, brickmakers, wheelwrights, coopers, etc.; laundresses, dairy-maids, and domestic servants. In all the above-named colonies, good land can be purchased for less money than it can be hired at in England; so that small capitalists who have skill and experience may soon become wealthy members of the colony.

To meet the great demand for labour which exists, a board of Emigration Commissioners has been appointed by the English Government, who grant free passages to the Colonies to properly qualified persons. Free grants of land are made in some of the colonies to persons who pay their own passage-money out. About 4,500,000 emigrants have left the United Kingdom since 1830; of whom more than one-half have gone to the United States, nearly one-fourth to our North American colonies, and about one-seventh to Australia and New Zealand.

Distances of Colonies.—The length of the voyage to different colonies depends not only upon the distance of the colony from England, but also on the route taken.

Digitized by Google

To Canada it is about 3500 miles; to the Cape, 8000 miles; to Natal, 8500 miles; to British Columbia, 14,000 miles; to Victoria, 14,000 miles; to Sydney, 15,000 miles; to New Zealand, 15,000 miles; to India (Calcutta), 15,000 miles.

There is a much shorter passage to India and Australia by the way of Alexandria, Cairo, and Suez, across the Isthmus of Suez, and thence called the OVERLAND ROUTE.

The time occupied by ordinary sailing-vessels from England to the Cape is about 50 days; to Australia 3 or 4 months; to Columbia 4 or 5 months; to Canada about 35 days. Steamers reach Canada from England in about 15 days.

Travellers by the Overland Route start from Southampton, and sail by steamer to Alexandria, calling at Gibraltar and Malta—the voyage taking about 13 days. They cross the isthmus by railway from Alexandria to Suez, where they again embark; arriving at Aden in 6 days, at Bombay in 15 days, at Ceylon in 17 days, at Madras in 21 days, and at Calcutta in 25 days from Suez. Travellers going to Australia leave Suez for Mauritius, where they arrive about 30 days after leaving Southampton. At Mauritius the steamer stays 24 hours to take in coal, and then proceeds to King George's Sound in Australia. After a like stoppage there for similar purposes, she starts for Kangaroo Island to land the mails and passengers for Adelaide. This done, she leaves for Melbourne, where she remains 24 hours, and then proceeds to Sydney; the length of passage from Southampton to Sydney by this route being about 55 days. A new line of route from Suez to Sydney by way of Aden and Ceylon has been established, but the distance and time are about the same as in the Mauritius route.

The following are some of the estimated distances by the Overland Route:—

Southampton to Gibraltar, 1150 miles; to Malta, 2130 miles; to Alexandria, 2950 miles. Alexandria to Suez, by rail, 260 miles; Suez to Aden, 1300; to Bombay, 2970; to Madras, 3980; to Calcutta, 4750; to Mauritius, 3620; to King George's Sound, 6920; to Melbourne, 8260; and to Sydney, 8850 miles.

Government of the various Colonies.—The general administration of the whole of our British Foreign Possessions, with the exception of India and the Hudson Bay Territory, is vested in the Colonial Office. To each a governor is appointed by the Sovereign; but in all those of them which have a large British population self-government has been encouraged; and a Legislature, very much corresponding to our own Parliament, has been established, which shares the management with the governor.

Digitized by Google

This is the case in the American colonies, the Cape, Australia, New Zealand, and most of the West Indies. The other colonies, which are ruled only by a governor and council appointed by the Sovereign of Great Britain, are called Crown Colonies, such as Heligoland, Ceylon, St. Helena, Hong Kong, and the Mauritius (see p. 24.)

Laws.—In Colonies which have been acquired by settlement, the Law of England, or so much of it as can be applied considering the state of the colony, comes immediately into force. In Colonies which have been ceded by treaty, or acquired by conquest, the laws and customs formerly in use in them are suffered to remain; but the form of government may be altered by the Queen in Council.

Thus French law prevails in Lower Canada and some of the West Indies; and Dutch law at the Cape of Good Hope and in Guiana. The particular portion of English law which can be made available in a newly settled colony is that which relates to general rules of inheritance, to personal rights, and to protection from injury.

Representative Institutions.—It has become the rule wherever convenient, to grant representative institutions to a Colony as soon as possible; that is, power is given to the colonists to elect for themselves a Representative Assembly, corresponding very much to our House of Commons. This Assembly has then the sole right to levy taxes in the Colony, and to make laws for its government; just as the House of Commons, which may be called the Representative Assembly of Great Britain, has the sole power of levying taxes in, and forming laws for, the government of Great Britain.

In almost every colony, whether it has a Representative Assembly or not, there is what is called a Legislative Council, consisting of some of the leading colonists. The members of it are appointed by the Queen, after having been named by the Governor.

The Legislative Council forms a Council of State over which the Governor presides. The members of this Council advise the Governor, and stand in the same relation to him as the members of the Privy Council in England do to the Queen.

The reason why such institutions have not been granted to all our colonies is that in some of them there exists a considerable native population who cannot exercise with advantage the right of self-government.

After a Representative Assembly has been granted to a colony the Queen cannot resume her formal power to legislate in it, but no laws passed by the Colonial legislature can become of force unless they have her sanction.

Digitized by Google

The Cape Colony, the colonies of Australia and New Zealand, and all our American colonies, except British Guiana, Trinidad, St. Lucia, and the Falkland Islands, have representative institutions. In the colonies of North America, Australia, New Zealand, and the Cape, the system of government corresponds very closely indeed to that in England.

In them there is, as in England, a complete separation between the legislative and executive functions of government; and the officers appointed by the governor are made responsible to the legislature, so that they can hold office only so long as they retain the confidence of that body. Where the power of making laws has been given to a Representative Assembly, it is necessary that the Legislative Council should give their consent before new laws can become of force.

The body which provides for the execution of the laws is called an Executive Council, and is distinct from the council which forms a branch of the Legislature. It is something like the "Cabinet" in England, except that it has not so much power. In all the West India Islands, except St. Lucia and Trinidad, the Legislative Council acts also as an Executive Council.

Ill Effects arising from Colonial Self-government.—"Whatever good effects the establishment of local self-government throughout the Colonies inhabited by the British race has produced, no one can doubt who looks impartially at the subject that for those good effects we have had to pay a very heavy price in the destruction of the unity of the government of the Empire. The system that prevailed in former times was unjust to the Colonies, and burdensome without being beneficial to the mother country; the former losing what the other never gained. In taking from the Colonies the power of self-government we took from them a power which we were unable to use, and rendered ourselves odious by meddling with what we did not understand. The new system, too, is not unattended with evils. When we give a Colony responsible government, we constitute it for all purposes of internal legislation and administration—that is, for almost all purposes, foreign relations alone excepted—a separate and independent territory. We thus expose ourselves to many inconveniences. The internal legislation of the Colony may involve principles hostile to Imperial interests; the Colonies may impose protective or discriminating duties; they may get up a war of tariffs with each other, or they may pass laws inconsistent with the treaty engagements of the empire, or contrary to our notions of justice. The Ministry, acting in the name of the Queen, may do numberless things which her Ministry in London may entirely disapprove. For the conflict that arises in the case of improper legislation a species of remedy is provided by the veto of the Crown, but for conduct in the Colonial Administration hostile to Imperial interests there is no remedy whatever so long as it meets the approbation of the Colonial Parliament. These are theoretical difficulties incident to the notion of self-govern-

Digitized by Google

ment. What practical weight they may have must depend on the difference or identity of sentiment between the Colonial Legislature and the Imperial Parliament. Unfortunately this difference is in some cases very great. At the time when the Constitutions of our Colonies were granted the favourite theory of English Liberals was that all the merits of Government were increased in proportion as the franchise was diminished. In an evil hour the Colonial Assemblies were intrusted with the power of reducing at their will the qualification of electors, and this one fatal gift neutralized all the good of a liberal policy. Very speedily the rivalry of contending parties reduced the franchise to universal suffrage. The wealthier and more intelligent classes were virtually disfranchised; Government succeeded Government in a rapid course of deterioration; dissolution succeeded dissolution, each creating a Parliament greatly inferior to its predecessor. At last the work is effectually done, and, in the Australian Colonies, at least, we have a system of Colonial Government in which the American type predominates decidedly over the English.

"The result of this is that the Government is not always such as does honour to the name of Her Majesty, in which it is carried on; the legislation is often opposed to the notions of policy, and even of justice, entertained by the Imperial Parliament. We have not given the Colonies self-government so much as given one class in each Colony the power of exercising what tyranny it pleases over the rest. It is quite impossible for Legislatures elected by a single class, and that the lowest and most ignorant in the community, to work responsible government as it is worked in England. It is equally impossible for such Legislatures to pass laws in accordance with the spirit of the British House of Commons, elected by constituencies in which the democratic element is tempered by a large admixture of property and intelligence. A complete system of Protection has, in defiance of the policy of the mother country, been framed in several Colonies. We see it in the protective tariff of the North American States, of Canada, of New South Wales, and of Victoria. Another symptom is a discouragement of immigration, which we see in the persecution of the Chinese in New South Wales, and in the wish plainly shown by the dominant working class in the Australian Colonies to discourage the arrival of fresh immigrants."

Crown Colonies.—In colonies which do not possess Representative Assemblies, such as those in Africa (except the Cape Colony), Mauritius, Hong Kong, Trinidad, St. Lucia, the Falkland Islands, British Guiana, Malta, St. Helena, and a few others, the government is vested in governors and a nominated legislative council. In such colonies, which are called *Crown Colonies*, the governor and council pass ordinances which have the force of laws within the colony.

Digitized by Google

COLONIES AND DEPENDENCIES
IN
EUROPE.

HELIGOLAND.

[*i. e.* Holy Land.]

Population about 2000 ; *Area*, 5¼ square miles.

Situation.—This is a small island in the North Sea. It lies off the coast of Denmark, and is about 36 miles north-west of the mouth of the river Elbe.

Extent.—The island consists of a cliff, and a low sandy down, united by a rocky isthmus cut into steps. The inhabitants dwell on the cliff. They are of Frisian descent, and live chiefly by fishing for haddocks and lobsters, to supply the London and Hamburg markets; and by acting as pilots. The island produces a little barley and oats.

In former times it was of much greater extent than it now is; and the sea is still washing it away so fast that it will probably, ere long, quite disappear as an island, and become a mere bank or shoal.

History.—Heligoland belonged to the Danes previous to 1807, when the English took it. At the time that Napoleon I. wished to exclude British goods from the continent of Europe, it became of great importance, not only as a naval station, but as a place for storing British goods, which were afterwards smuggled ashore. Since the Peace of 1815, it has quite lost its importance.

GIBRALTAR.

[Arabic, *Jebel Tarik*, i. e., the Hill of Tarik.]

Population, 16,000 ; *Area*, less than 2 square miles.

Situation and General Character.—Gibraltar is a strongly fortified rock, forming a little promontory on the southern side of Spain, at the entrance to the Mediterranean Sea. The town, which derives its name from the rock, is built on the western side of the promontory.

Digitized by Google

The rock is three miles long from north to south, and about three-quarters of a mile broad; and is connected with the continent by a low sandy isthmus. It rises to a height of nearly 1500 feet, and on the north and east is so precipitous as to be wholly inaccessible. On the western side it slopes down to the Bay of Gibraltar, and here the fortifications are so strong that the place is considered to be impregnable —*i. e.* impossible to be taken by an enemy. The rock is composed principally of a grey marble, and is hollowed out into caves, which afford shelter to a few apes, the only animals of their kind now found wild in Europe.

Climate.—The climate is hot, but tempered by sea-breezes. The water supply for the inhabitants is wholly derived from the rains, as there are no springs. The roofs of the houses are so built as to conduct the rain which falls on them to a tank beneath. The provisions are obtained chiefly from Africa.

Importance.—From its position, Gibraltar is regarded as the "Key of the Mediterranean." It is highly important as a naval station, as a place of trade for distributing British goods to the Barbary States, and as a packet-station for vessels engaged in the Overland Route to India.

History.—Gibraltar was taken from the Spaniards A.D. 1704, and has ever since belonged to the English. The garrison under General Eliott sustained in 1779 a siege from the French and Spanish armies and fleets combined, which lasted three years and seven months; but the enemy could not succeed in taking it. The fortifications have lately been much strengthened.

The rock of Gibraltar and the one opposite to it on the African coast, were called by the ancients the "Pillars of Hercules," and were regarded as forming the end of the world. Gibraltar was taken A.D. 711 by an army of Moors under Tarik; and continued in the possession of the Moors until the fourteenth century.

Gibraltar was constituted a see of the Church of England in 1842; but the Bishop resides at Malta.

MALTA (INCLUDING GOZO AND COMINO).

[Name contracted from the ancient name *Melita.*]

Population, 143,000; *Area*, 115 square miles.

Situation.—Malta lies about 60 miles south-west of Sicily, and 180 from Africa. Its port is said to be the finest in the Mediterranean. Owing to its central position in that sea, the island is of very great importance both for commercial as well

Digitized by Google

as military purposes. It is in consequence sometimes called the "Diamond of the Mediterranean." Gozo, a small island on its north-western side, and Comino, a still smaller island between the two, are included under the government of Malta.

The commercial importance of Malta has been acknowledged in all ages. It commands the southern coast of Europe, and is a sort of half-way house in the Mediterranean. It is, too, the head quarters of a fleet which can appear on any shore in the Mediterranean in a few days, and can always find safe anchorage in the harbour of Valetta.

Extent and Character.—Like Gibraltar, these islands are little else than mere masses of rock. Malta stretches in a direction from north-west to south-east; its length being 18 miles, and its greatest breadth 10. Its area is about 95 square miles.

The capital is *Valetta*, on the north-cast coast (60,000), a clean, well-built, handsome town, with one of the finest ports in the world. Its fortifications are considered impregnable. Vessels engaged in the Overland Route to India generally call here. West of Valetta is *Porto de San Paolo* (Acts xxvii.).

About two-thirds of the surface of the island is cultivated: the rest is bare rock. A large proportion of it has been made productive by sheer industry. Earth has been collected from crevices of the rock, and carefully placed on level layers of loose broken rock. Numerous little stone walls prevent the rain from washing the soil away. The climate is so excellent that two crops can be easily raised in a year. The whole crop of corn does not last the inhabitants more than about three months. There are no forest-trees nor hedges. The wild thyme, abounding in the west, is much frequented by bees, which produce the honey for which Malta is so celebrated.

There are no streams in the island, and springs are not numerous, consequently the rain-water is collected in tanks.

Productions.—The chief production is *cotton*. The vine and the olive are cultivated; figs and oranges are abundant, and the vegetables are excellent. The asses of Malta and Gozo have always been celebrated.

People.—The Maltese are strong, hardy, and active; and make excellent seamen. They are also famed for some delicate manufactures, particularly those of jewellery and gold filigree-work. Their language is a dialect of Arabic, and their religion Roman Catholic.

History.—The Island of Malta is generally supposed to have been originally peopled by the Phœnicians, from whom it passed to the Greeks. The Carthaginians, Romans, Vandals, Goths, and Arabs successively possessed it afterwards; and the latter were driven out,

Digitized by Google

A.D. 1120, by Count Roger of Normandy, who had conquered Sicily. In 1516 Malta passed with Sicily to the Emperor Charles V. In 1530 he gave it to the Knights of St. John of Jerusalem, who had been driven out of Rhodes by the Turks, and who thus became sovereigns of Malta. The French obtained it in 1798 through the treachery of some of the Knights, but were driven out by the English in 1800. By an article in the Treaty of Amiens (1802) it was agreed that the island should be restored to the Knights. The Maltese, however, found that the Knights had promised to give it to Russia, and, not liking the transfer, they entreated the English to retain possession. This was the principal cause of that renewal of war which finally ended in the ruin of Napoleon. Malta has consequently been a dependency of Great Britain since the year 1800.

IONIAN ISLANDS.

[So called from lying in that part of the Mediterranean called *Mare Ionicum*—Ionian Sea.]

Population 232,000; *Area*, 1097 square miles.

Situation.—This name is given to a number of islands on the western coast of Greece: the seven largest in order of size being—*Cephalonia*, *Corfu*, *Zante*, *Santa Maura*, *Cer'igo*, *Ithaca*, and *Paxo*. They form a republic, at present (1863), under the protection of Great Britain.

History.—Most of these islands are celebrated in Grecian history. In the fifteenth century the Venetians obtained possession of them, which they maintained for more than 300 years. In 1797, on the overthrow of Venice, the French became masters of the islands, but were driven out soon after by the Russians and Turks combined. In 1815, on the downfall of Napoleon, they were made into a republic, and placed under the protection of Great Britain. The affairs of the Republic are administered by a Parliament, presided over by a Lord High Commissioner, who represents the English Sovereign. In the early part of the year 1863, when the Greeks had expelled Otho the Bavarian, and elected Prince Alfred as their future king, Earl Russell informed the Greek Provisional Government that it was utterly impossible for Alfred to reign over Greece. In order, however, to express the friendly feeling of Great Britain to the Greek nation, he promised, in case they should elect a sovereign whom the Queen might acknowledge, that the Ionian Islands should be ceded to Greece. Their choice has fallen on Prince William of Denmark, brother of the Princess of Wales; and the transfer of the Islands will, in consequence, shortly take place.

Digitized by Google

COLONIES AND DEPENDENCIES

IN

ASIA.

ADEN AND PERIM.

Population 50,000.

Situation.—ADEN is a town, seaport, and fortress of Arabia, near the entrance to the Red Sea. Its harbour is said to be the finest in Arabia.

The island of PERIM, 90 miles from Aden, at the entrance of the Red Sea, was occupied in 1859 by order of the Governor of Aden, for the purpose of having a light-house built upon it to facilitate the navigation of the Strait of Bab-el-Mandeb. It has 50 inhabitants, a portion of the Aden garrison.

The territory of Aden, like Gibraltar, consists of a mountainous peninsula, about fifteen miles in circumference, which is connected with the mainland by a low, narrow, sandy isthmus. As a military post of great strength, an admirable harbour for steamers, a depôt for coals, or as a place adapted for commerce, it has no rival near. It now forms an important telegraph station on the line established between India and Alexandria.

The Curia Muria Islands, a group of five small islets on the south coast of Arabia, may be mentioned here. They have lately become famous owing to a considerable supply of guano obtained from them; and were ceded to the British Government by the Imaum of Muscat, in 1854.

History.—The circumstances under which Aden became British territory are, briefly, these:—In 1837 a Madras ship was wrecked on the coast of Aden. The inhabitants of the town plundered the vessel and most cruelly treated the crew and passengers. On hearing of it the government of Bombay determined not only to obtain redress for the outrage, but also to take such measures as would prevent the recurrence of similar cruelties. An arrangement was made by which the Sultan of Aden agreed to cede the peninsula to the British Government in consideration of an annual pension. But before the treaty was signed a plot was formed to destroy the British agent, who, hearing of it, escaped to Bombay. On his return to complete the agreement he was insulted, and all further redress was refused. In consequence, the place was attacked by a military and naval force, and taken

Digitized by Google

January, 1839. It was at that time nothing but a wretched village, containing 600 miserable inhabitants. It is now a neat and well-built town, with a thriving population and very considerable trade.

CEYLON.

[For the Geography of Ceylon, see 'British Colonies,' No. II.]

History.—The early history of Ceylon is so mixed up with fable that it is almost impossible to get at the truth with respect to it. The ancients knew the island under the name Taprobane. At the end of the thirteenth century the celebrated traveller Marco Pola visited it; and in the next century the English traveller Sir John Maundeville.

The Portuguese first visited the island at the beginning of the sixteenth century, and were encouraged in their visits by the king of Kandy, who paid them an annual tribute of 25,000,000 lbs. of cinnamon to defend the island against Arabian and other pirates who had begun to infest it. After driving away the pirates, they made themselves masters of the coast provinces, which they retained for 150 years, when they were driven out by the Dutch (1656). The latter remained in possession of the coast provinces till 1796, when they in turn were driven out by the British, after a long struggle.

In 1815, the kingdom of Kandy in the centre of the island, which had till then remained independent, also became British; the king having been deposed by desire of the chiefs, on account of his tyranny and cruelty. Since that time Ceylon has been a Crown colony of Great Britain.

The natives of Ceylon are called Singhalese.

HONG KONG AND KOWLOON.

Population, 100,000; *Area*, 30 square miles.

Situation, Capital, &c.—Hong Kong is a small island at the entrance to the Canton River, off the south-east coast of China. Its capital, *Victoria*, on a splendid harbour on the north side of the island, is the chief centre of commerce; and contains about a third of the whole population of the island. It is the see of a Bishop of the Colonial Church of England.

Kowloon, a little peninsula on the mainland of China, opposite to Hong Kong, and the Lema Islands, have been recently annexed to this.

Hong Kong consists of barren granite rocks rising abruptly from the sea to a height of one or two thousand feet, leaving but little space to

Digitized by Google

build upon. Water is abundant, but there are no trees of any size. The climate, though warm, is considered to be healthy.

The chief exports are British and Indian goods, which it distributes along the coasts of China. The value of the exports is now upwards of 1,200,000*l.* annually.

Government.—Hong Kong is a Crown colony. Its governor has the superintendence over the British trade carried on at Canton, Shanghai, Foochow, Amoy, Ningpo, and the other Chinese ports open to the British.

History.—Hong Kong was taken by the British during the war with China. In 1842 it was formally ceded to Great Britain, and in 1843 was regularly constituted a British colony. Kowloon was taken possession of by Great Britain in 1861 with the object of protecting Hong Kong from the incursions of pirates and rogues who used to assemble there and plunder the vessels engaged in trade with the island.

LABUAN.

Population, 2000; *Area*, 26 square miles.

Situation, Exports.—LABUAN is a small island of triangular shape, off the north-west coast of the island of Borneo. It is well supplied with water, and has a good harbour at Victoria, a port near its south-eastern corner. Excellent coal abounds at the north-east point of the island, and is shipped to Singapore for the use of the Peninsular and Oriental Company's steamers. The other exports are sago, edible birds'-nests, pearls, and camphor.

Edible birds'-nests owe their celebrity to a whimsical luxury of the Chinese. They are the habitation of a small swallow, and are composed of a gum-like substance, which appears not unlike isinglass. Each nest is about as large as a goose's egg, and as thick as a spoon, and weighs from a quarter to half an ounce. The gathering takes place twice or three times a year, and is attended with considerable danger. After the nests are obtained they are carefully cleaned, dried, and packed, and then exported to China, where the best fetch nearly twice their weight in silver. These nests are most largely exported from Java, Borneo, and Sumatra, but they are found on most of the rocky islets of the Indian Archipelago.

History.—The island was ceded to the British Government by the Sultan of Borneo in 1846, as a convenient station for checking piracy, so common on the coast of Borneo. It was settled soon afterwards.

Digitized by Google

SARAWAK.

Sarawak is a small province on the north-west coast of the island of Borneo, containing a very fertile soil, peculiarly adapted to the growth of the sugar-cane. The chief town is *Sarawak* (12,000).

Cloves, nutmegs, and cinnamon thrive well, and cocoanuts, rice, and sago, are largely produced. Minerals are plentiful, especially *antimony*,* which is hardly met with in other countries at all, and is therefore very valuable.

This province was given up by the Sultan of Borneo in 1843, to Sir James Brooke, who rules it under the title of Rajah. It is not strictly a British colony, being rather under the protection of Great Britain than subject to it. Application was made in 1859 for it to be placed under the Colonial Office, but the British Government did not accede to the request.

SINGAPORE.

This island, lying at the southern extremity of the Malay Peninsula, is included in the *Straits' Settlements* (see p. 57), but from its very great commercial importance is worthy of separate mention. It resembles the Isle of Wight in shape, and is about one-third as large. The population, which numbers about 100,000, of whom half are Chinese, is stationed chiefly at the town of Singapore, on the southern side of the island.

From its extensive business transactions, Singapore is called the Liverpool of the East. The island has become the great entrepôt of south-eastern Asia and the Indian Archipelago, to which the natives resort with the produce of their manufactures and farms, and where they find a market abundantly stocked with all kinds of British and European produce. The variety of its trade may be seen from the following list of a few of the articles exported to Great Britain:—gutta-percha, tortoise-shell, mother-of-pearl, sago, black pepper, white pepper, nutmegs, mace, camphor, gambier, gamboge, antimony, coffee, stick lac, cotton, rice, indigo, &c.; and its amount may be judged from the estimated value of the exported and imported goods, which amounts to upward of 12,000,000*l*. annually.

---

* Used in Medicine and the Arts. Its chief application is in the manufacture of *type-metal*, a mixture chiefly of lead and antimony—the quantity of the latter varying from one-fourth to one-twelfth—to which a little tin, bismuth, and copper are generally added. *Hard pewter* is made of twelve parts of tin and one of antimony. The so-called india-rubber combs contain a certain portion of antimony.

Digitized by Google

GEOGRAPHY OF INDIA.

CHAPTER I.

Position, Figure, Size, Boundaries, and Coast-line.

1. BRITISH INDIA is to be regarded as a *Dependency* of Great Britain rather than a colony, since it is inhabited almost entirely not by settlers or colonists who have gone out from our own country with the purpose of making it their future home, as is the case with the majority of those who emigrate to Australia, New Zealand, or Canada, but by a population which has become subject to Great Britain by right of conquest.

2. The most important part of British India is

(*a*) The peninsula of *Hindostan*.

But besides this great country it includes :—

(*b*) The Island of *Ceylon* (chaps. ii. § 9, viii. § 12).

(*c*) The western portion of the peninsula which lies to the east of the Bay of Bengal, now known as *British Burmah*.

(*d*) The *Straits' Settlements* (see chap. viii. § 11) on the same side of the bay, but further south.

3. Hindostan lies between the parallels of 8° and 37° north latitude, and between the meridians of 67° and 97° east longitude. Its form is nearly that of a triangle, with the point turned towards the south. The greatest length from Cape Com'orin to the north-western extremity of the Himálaya is about 1860 miles ;* and the greatest breadth from Kurrachee, west of the mouth of the Indus, to the eastern end of Assam, is nearly as much.

A large part of the peninsula, therefore, is within the torrid zone, and the rest is within the warmest part of the north temperate zone. The Sahara in Africa, and the West India Islands in America, lie between the same parallels.

* All distances and areas are expressed in statute miles.

Digitized by Google

From the most southern to the most northern point is three times as far as it is from the Land's End to Duncansby Head in Great Britain; or about as far as it is from Bristol to Newfoundland, across the Atlantic Ocean; or from London to the Caspian Sea, across the continent of Europe.

4. It is bounded on the north mainly by the *Himálaya Chain*, which separates it from Tibet; on the north-west by the *Solyman Range*, which separates it from Afghanistan' and Beloochistan'; and on the north-east by a range of hills which separates it from Burmah. On the other sides it is washed by portions of the Indian Ocean; the *Arabian Sea* being on the west, and the *Bay of Bengal* on the east. (See *Cashmere*, p. 58).

5. British India inclusive is more than seventeen times as large as Great Britain, or as large as all the countries of Europe together, if we except Russia and Sweden.

Its extent is about 1,740,000 square miles.*

6. The coast-line has remarkably few inlets. There are only two of much importance, which are both on the western side, the *Gulf of Cutch* and the *Gulf of Cambay*.

The length of coast-line is about 3600 miles, so that there is 1 mile of coast to every 450 square miles of area.

The southern part of the eastern shore is called the *Coromandel Coast*, and the southern part of the western shore the *Malabar Coast*.

CHAPTER II.

General Features, Physical Divisions, Mountains, and Table-lands.

1. THE table-land of Tibet, lying immediately to the north of Hindostan, is the loftiest on the globe, being probably 12,000 feet high. From it the continent descends, by a steep slope, to the plain of Hindostan, which has a height of only about 1000 feet above the sea-level.

Between the table-land and the plain are the *Himalaya Mountains*, which are the highest in the world. The descent from the *Solyman*

* As a standard of comparison, it may be recollected that the area of Great Britain is about 90,000 square miles.

Digitized by Google

Range is likewise steep towards Hindostan, but this chain of mountains is not nearly so lofty as the Himalaya, the average height being under 6000 feet.

2. If we could look across Hindostan southwards, from one of the summits of the Himálaya range, we should see at the foot of the mountains a narrow belt of land covered with forest, and remarkable for the absence of water; and next to this a narrow belt of swampy ground, called the *Terai* (*i. e.* The Swamp), covered with reeds and grass, and so unhealthy that it is sometimes called the Band of Death.

3. Beyond the Terai we should see the great *Plain of Hindostan*, comprising the basin of the Ganges on the east, the lowest, the most fertile, and the most thickly peopled region of the peninsula; the basin of the Indus on the west; and a large barren tract between these two river valleys, higher than either, bearing the name of the *Great Desert.* (See chap. iii. § 1, *b.*)

The plain is hardly anywhere more than 1000 feet above the sea-level, and a very large part of it is not more than 10 feet above.

South of the plain of the Ganges the country gradually rises into a low table-land, backed by the chain of the *Vindhya Mountains*, which stretch across the peninsula eastward from the Gulf of Cambay. At their southern foot is the rich, deep, narrow *Valley of the Nerbudda*, extending to the higher but shorter range of the Sautpoora mountains, on the other side of which is the *Valley of the Taptee.*

4. Beyond the Taptee we should see the great *Table-land of the Deccan*, sloping towards the east, and rising terrace beyond terrace to the height of more than 3000 feet. It is bounded on its eastern and western sides by low mountain-chains known as the *Ghauts*, which approach each other as they run southwards, till at last they meet at the southern extremity of India. The Ghauts and the Vindhya mountains thus form a rim to the table-land which they surround.

All the rivers of the Deccan, south of the Taptee, run through openings in the Eastern Ghauts to the sea.

Most of these streams have, in the course of ages, worn out for themselves deep channels in the soil, and are now so much below the level of the land that they are useless for the purpose of irrigation.

Scattered over the Deccan are numerous rocky ridges and solitary hills rising suddenly from the table-land with almost perpendicular

 Digitized by Google

sides, which can only be climbed by steps cut in the rocks, or by narrow winding paths. On these rocks have been built those strongholds known as the Hill Forts, so long famous in Indian history.

5. Between the *Western Ghauts* and the sea is a narrow strip of extremely fertile lowland, from 20 to 50 miles wide; and between the *Eastern Ghauts* and the sea is a similar but much broader plain.

The Western Ghauts are so very steep and continuous on their seaward side, that it is hardly possible to get from the coast to the table-land (except in two or three places), for hundreds of miles.

The Eastern Ghauts are lower and more broken up than the Western Ghauts, and the ascent by them to the table-land above is also much more gradual than it is on the western side of the Deccan.

6. There is a great break or gap in the southern portion of the table-land, 20 miles wide from north to south, which quite unites the lowlands on the eastern and western coasts. It is called the *Gap of Coimbatore*, from the name of a town in it. South of this gap the mountains rise to a great height, and run out towards Cape Comorin in one chain.

The country lying between the Gap and the southern point of Hindostan is sometimes called Southern India.

7. The chief mountain-chains of the peninsula are:—

(*a*) The *Himălaya Range* on the north, running from west to east. Its length is 1500 miles, and its average height 20,000 feet. The highest summit, *Mount Everest*, which lies nearly due north of Calcutta, is 29,000 feet (*i. e.* more than five miles) high. This height is nearly double that of Mont Blanc, the highest mountain in Europe, and almost seven times that of Ben Nevis, the highest summit in Great Britain.

It is hard to conceive what an immense height that of Mount Everest is. If we compare it with the height of a building, such as the Monument, we find that twenty Monuments, placed one above another, would be required for the topmost to be as high as Ben Nevis; and therefore 140 monuments, similarily placed, to reach as high as the summit of Mount Everest.

(*b*) The *Western Ghauts*, running from north to south. The length of the chain is 1000 miles, and its average height 4000 feet.

When seen from the sea-coast, the mountains forming this range appear to be steep and lofty; but they seem to be only low hills when viewed from the Deccan.

Digitized by Google

(c) The *Eastern Ghauts*, running from north-east to south-west. The length of the chain is 1000 miles, and its average height 1500 feet.

In the south they form only separate groups of hills, but in the north they are more continuous. They bear no comparison with the Western Ghauts in regularity or grandeur.

(d) The *Vindhya Chain*, running from west to east, and almost connecting the northern ends of the Eastern and Western Ghauts. This range divides Hindostan Proper from the Deccan.

As the country just north of the Vindhya mountains is a table-land, their summits on that side appear only as low hills; but on the opposite side the range appears like a steep wall along the valley of the Nerbudda. Their average elevation is 1800 feet. They send out towards the north-east a chain of low heights, which, near the great bend of the Ganges, are known as the *Rajmahal Hills*. A continuation of the same chain on the left bank of the Ganges forms the *Khasia Hills*.

(e) The *Aravulli Mountains*, running from south-west to north-east, between the basins of the Indus and Ganges.

They approach very near to the western end of the Vindhya chain. The length of the range is 400 miles; its average height 3000 feet; *Mount Aboo*, the highest point, is 5000 feet high.

(f) The *Sautpoora Mountains*, a short range, running parallel to the western half of the Vindhya chain, and just south of it.

(g) The *Neilgherries*, a mountain mass on the northern side of the Gap of Coimbatore, nearly 7000 feet high, connecting the Eastern and Western Ghauts.

Mount Dodabetta, a peak in this group 8760 feet high, is the loftiest mountain in the Deccan.

8. The chief table-lands of Hindostan are the *Deccan* and the *Table-land of Malwa*. The *Deccan*, by far the most extensive, has a mean elevation of 2000 feet. The *Table-land of Malwa* is bounded on the south by the Vindhya chain, and on the west by the Aravulli mountains. It slopes towards the north, and is drained into the Ganges.

The central part of the table-land of the Deccan is very level, and at one season of the year presents for hundreds of miles an unbroken sheet of green harvest; but in the hot season it looks like a desert, naked and brown, without a tree or a shrub to relieve the view.

Digitized by Google

9. The island of CEYLON is pear-shaped, having its widest part towards the south. Its surface consists of a low belt of land next to the sea, surrounding an interior table-land, the sides of which are nearly parallel to the coast. The table-land narrows to a mere ridge in the north, and has an elevation of from 2000 to 3000 feet; but there are mountains upon it which are more than 8000 feet above the sea-level. The low plain near the coast is from 20 to 30 miles wide in the east and south, but nearly 100 miles wide in the north. It is perpetually clothed in the brightest green.

CHAPTER III.

Rivers.

1. THE Northern Region, or Hindostan Proper, is drained by three large rivers, the *Ganges*, the *Indus*, and the *Brahmaputra*, which derive their chief supplies of water from the snows of the Himálaya.

(*a*) The *Ganges* rises on the northern side of the chain, at a height of 11,000 feet, in a cave which is called the Cow's Mouth. It runs for 200 miles through the chain, and enters the plain of India at Hurdwar, where it it is about 1000 feet above the sea-level. Below Hurdwar its course is first south-east for 500 miles to Allahabad; next, eastward for 500 miles to the Rajmahal Hills; and lastly, southward for 300 miles to the sea. Its total length, which is above 1500 miles,* is more than seven times that of the Thames; and the extent of its basin, which is 400,000 square miles, is eight times the area of England. The river forms many branches before it joins the sea. One of the largest of these, and by far the most important, is the western one, called the *Hooghly*, upon which Calcutta, the capital of India, stands. Another, on the east, receives the *Brahmaputra*, a large confluent rising on the north side of the Himálaya. The Ganges is navigable only for boats, except in some of the channels of the Delta. Its largest affluents, on the right bank, are the *Jumna*, which

* As a standard of comparison, it may be recollected that the Thames is 215 miles long.

Digitized by Google

rises in the Himálaya, joining the main stream at Allahabad; and the *Sone*, which rises in the Vindhya range. On the left bank the Ganges receives the *Goomtee*, the *Gogra*, the *Gunduck*, and other streams, all rising in the Himálaya range.

The Jumna has a tributary 600 miles long, called the *Chum'bul*, rising in the Vindhya range.

The large district between the Ganges and the Jumna is called the *Doab*, a name which means the country between two rivers.

The valley of the Ganges is the most fertile, best cultivated, and most thickly peopled part of all India.

The least valuable district is the delta, or very low country between the branches at the mouth of the river, known as the *Sunderbund* district. The land here has been formed entirely by earth which the river has brought down. It is very unhealthy, being covered with thick vegetation; and it abounds in tigers, buffaloes, rhinoceroses, and other wild animals.

The river overflows its banks every year, owing to the violent rains of the south-west monsoon (chap. iv.). It begins to rise in May, and is highest in September.

The rise is 7 feet at Calcutta, but is sometimes 45 feet at Allahabad. The country near the river is laid under water during the season of the south-west monsoon for many hundreds of miles in every direction, nothing being left visible but villages and the tops of trees. Owing to these regular floods, the river changes its bed in the course of years. The field of Plassey is now on a different side of the river from that on which it was when the battle was fought.

A mass of earth is brought down every year by the Ganges sufficient to cover an area of 120 square miles to the depth of a foot. The Brahmaputra, too, brings down as much as the Ganges. The mud of these rivers discolours the sea for a distance of nearly 100 miles from their mouths.

(*b*) The *Indus*, like the Ganges, rises in Tibet, but its source is twice as high. The natives of the country imagine that it issues from a lion's mouth. The Indus flows for nearly 900 miles before it reaches the plain of India at Attock; its course is then to the south-west for 900 miles more, so that the whole length of the stream is about 1800 miles. Its valley is much less extensive than that of the Ganges, though the stream is longer. The two principal affluents of the Indus are the the *Cabul River*, on the right bank, coming from Afghanistan', and the *Chenab'*, on the left bank.

Digitized by Google

The Chenab is joined on its right bank by the *Jhelum*, and on its left by the *Ravee* and the *Sutlej*. These streams, with the *Indus*, form the Five Rivers which give rise to the name PUNJAB, *i.e.*, country of five rivers.

The valley of the Indus is sandy, and not very fertile. The best portion is that near the Himálaya range, which is the most favourable district in India for the growth of corn. The river discharges nearly as much water as the Mississippi, and four times as much as the Ganges. Like them, too, it is subject to annual floods; and, as the banks are low, the country is frequently widely inundated. Sometimes villages and even towns are washed away.

Between the Indus and the Aravulli range is a sandy waste, nearly as large as Wales, and almost as desolate as the Sahara; it is known as the *Great Indian Desert.*

There are in it a few oases containing some flourishing towns; but, as no rivers whatever flow over it, the natives dig large tanks, which, being filled in the rainy season, supply them with water during the rest of the year. Sometimes these supplies fail, and then many thousands of men and cattle perish from thirst.

2. The rivers of that part of the peninsula south of the Plain of Hindostan are numerous. They derive their waters chiefly from the moonsoon rains (see chap. iv.). The largest are:—

(*a*) The *Mahanud'dy*, in the north-east corner of the Deccan, rising not far from the Nerbudda and the Sone.

Its length is 520 miles, and the area of its basin 60,000 square miles. It has a large delta.

(*b*) The *Goda'very*, the longest river of the Deccan, rising near the northern end of the Western Ghauts, 50 miles from the sea. It flows to the south-east.

Its length is 900 miles, and the area of its basin 105,000 square miles. Near its mouth it forms several branches, on the most northern of which is the harbour of Coringa, where is the only smooth water on the whole of the eastern coast of Hindostan, during the period of the south-west monsoon.

(*c*) The *Kistnah* or *Krishna*, rising in the Western Ghauts, at Mahabuleshwar, only 40 miles from the sea.

Its length is 800 miles, and the area of its basin 110,000 square miles, the largest in the Deccan. Its chief tributary is the *Toombudra*, on the right bank. The surface of the Kistnah is nearly 50 feet below the plain through which it flows, and the banks are quite steep, so that the stream is altogether useless for agricultural purposes (see chap. ii. § 4). It is not anywhere navigable.

Digitized by Google

The low country between the mouths of the Godavery and the Kistnah is annually inundated by the waters of the lake Colair, which lies between the two rivers, and is connected with each of them.

(*d*) The *Northern* and the *Southern Pennair*, two streams rising in the table-land of Mysore, each about 300 miles long.

(*e*) The *Cauvery*, rising in the Western Ghauts, in the district of Coorg. The lower half of this river is in the plain of the eastern coast.

Its length is 480 miles, and the area of its basin 36,000 square miles. The river passes from the table-land to the plain in two magnificent falls, one 370 feet, and the other 470 feet in height. Below Trichinop'oly it forms two branches, one going to the north-east, called the *Coleroon*, and the other to the south-east. The latter is used to feed a number of canals, which render the tract over which they flow one of the most fertile rice-grounds in India.

(*f*) The *Taptee*, one of the two large rivers of the Deccan which flow westward. It runs along the southern base of the Sautpoora range.

Its length is 450 miles, and the area of its basin 25,000 square miles. During the rainy season the river is very much swollen, and often causes great destruction to life and property; but in the dry season it almost disappears. Even at Surat, which is only 17 miles from the sea, the depth is not more than a foot when the tide is out.

(*g*) The *Nerbudda*, which is the other river of the Deccan flowing westward, rises near the Mahanuddy. Its basin is a narrow valley, bounded on the north and south by mountain chains (see chap. ii. § 3.) No river in India, of such length, receives so few tributaries.

The length of the Nerbudda is 800 miles, and the area of its basin 60,000 square miles. The river is very broad, and scarcely anywhere navigable; at Broach, 30 miles from the mouth, it measures two miles across.

3. In that part of India east of the Bay of Bengal are—the *River of Arracan'*, the lower portion of the *Irawaddy*, the *Sitang*, the lower portion of the *Salwen*, and the *Tenas'serim*.

The Irawaddy is by far the largest of all these, and is probably more than 1000 miles long. It forms a number of channels in Pegu, the two largest being each 150 miles long. The easternmost is called the *Rangoon River*, and the westernmost the *River of Bassein*. The mouth of the Salwen forms an estuary of considerable size, on the opposite sides of which stand Moulmein and Martaban, the chief towns of the district.

Digitized by Google

CHAPTER IV.

Climate.

1. The climate of so large a country as India, with a surface so diversified, is necessarily varied. The position of the country on the earth's surface would lead us to conclude that the climate is very warm.

As regards climate, no country in the world of equal extent is so favoured as Hindostan. This arises, to a great degree, from the physical inequalities of its surface, without which India would have been a vast desert. The Himalayas, rising in height from 20,000 to 29,000 feet, act as the great modifiers of temperature, and provide proper water-supply to the rivers in the north as well as to the atmosphere; while the Eastern and Western Ghauts rise abruptly in their turn along the edge of the Deccan, and produce similar effects.

2. Owing to peculiar causes, the wind, instead of blowing from all quarters, as it does with us, blows generally for six months in one direction, *viz.*, from the north-east; and for six months in the opposite direction, *viz.*, from the south-west. Winds such as these, which blow regularly for certain periods, are called Monsoons.

3. There are two monsoons in Hindostan, the north-east and the south-west. The former prevails from October to April, and the latter from April to October.

The time of change from one to the other lasts about a month, and is attended with most violent thunderstorms and even hurricanes.

4. The year in India admits, for the most part, of a division into three seasons: *viz.*, the hot, from March to June; the wet, from June to October; and the temperate, from October to March.

During the hot season, the land becomes parched and brown; vegetation withers; small rivers dry up, and large ones dwindle down to mere brooks. On the low plains of the coast, and in the plain of the Ganges, the heat is almost unbearable; but on the Deccan it is much subdued, owing to the elevation of the land above the sea-level.

5. The rains in Hindostan depend entirely on the winds. The south-west monsoon, which commences in April, brings

Digitized by Google

rain to almost the whole of the country except the eastern coast, where its fall depends on the north-east monsoon, and commences in October, just as rain has ceased in other parts of the country.

Certain districts in the south of the Deccan, which are exposed to both winds, have two rainy seasons, one for each monsoon.

On some parts of the Western Ghauts there are nine rainy months in the year; for six of which the inhabitants lay in provisions and fuel as for a siege or a voyage. In such regions the sun is rarely ever seen.

6. Though the number of rainy days in a year is small, the total amount of rain-fall is considerable. At Calcutta it is 86 inches;* at Bombay, 80 inches; and at Madras, 70 inches. The numberless tanks, which the natives have formed for storing away water, are filled in the rainy season; rivers overflow their banks, and many hundreds of miles of country are laid under water.

Probably the greatest mean annual fall of rain in the world occurs on the Western Ghauts, where, at Mahabuleshwar, near the source of the Kistnah, it is more than 300 inches; but the quantity diminishes inland so rapidly, that the mean fall is only 57 inches at a place 15 miles further to the east.

The greatest fall of rain in a year ever observed was in the lower valley of the Brahmaputra, at the foot of the Cossya Hills, in northern Assam, where more than 600 inches were measured.

7. The air of the hills is purer and cooler than that of the plains, and is therefore much more suited to Europeans. Those who suffer from the climate of the plains sometimes go to the hills to regain their health.

The places most frequented by European invalids are *Darjeeling*, just south of Sikkim; *Simla*, near the left bank of the upper Sutlej; *Mount Aboo*, in the Aravulli range; *Mahabuleshwar;* and the *Neilgherries*.

8. The most unhealthy districts in India are those in which there is swamp or jungle; such are the *Terai*, the *Sunderbunds*, and some of the rice-grounds on the eastern coast.

---

* The quantity of rain which falls in a given spot during a year is stated in inches, the number of which indicates the depth to which the rain during the whole year would cover the ground if it were perfectly level, and if no portion of the water were allowed to run off or evaporate. As a standard of comparison, it may be stated that the mean yearly fall of rain in London is 24 inches, in Paris 22 inches, and in St. Petersburg only 17 inches.

Digitized by Google

CHAPTER V.

Mineral Productions.

1. India is known to have an abundant supply of minerals, but they have never yet been turned to account. *Coal*, *iron*, *tin*, *copper*, and *lead*, are very plentiful; and gold, silver, and plumbago are also found; but at present only tin and a small quantity of iron have been exported.

The mineral resources of India will be far more available in a few years, when railroads have become established. In past times gold was obtained in considerable quantities in India, and it has even been conjectured that Malabar is the site of the ancient Ophir. Diamonds, rubies, pearls, and other precious gems have for ages been celebrated among the products of the country. More valuable than all these, however, are the coal deposits which have been discovered in various localities.

2. Its *iron*, which is of the best quality, is found in numerous districts, frequently associated with coal, as in England; but, where coal is absent, there is generally an abundance of wood. The best known deposits are in North-west Bengal (Burdwan), the upper valley of the Nerbudda, and Bhopal, where it is associated with coal; in Kumaon, where the supply of wood adapted for smelting it is inexhaustible, and in Gwalior, South Arcot, and Malabar.

The district most worked at present is that in Malabar belonging to an English company, which exports the iron to England. The railroads at present formed in India are chiefly constructed of English iron; but most of the native agricultural instruments, such as they are, are made of the iron of the country. In the hills of Tenasserim there is so much magnetic iron that particles follow the hammer when the rock is struck.

3. Beds of *coal* stretch across India from the valley of the Nerbudda to Assam. The fields on the Upper Nerbudda are very rich, and the one in Burdwan appears to be inexhaustible. Coal is carried by rail from Burdwan to Calcutta. An inferior quality is worked in Assam, Arracan, the Tenasserim provinces, and Cuttack.

4. Pure *tin* ore abounds in the Tenasserim provinces, where it is worked by Chinese. The tin is sent to Penang and Singapore, from whence it is re-exported.

Digitized by Google

5. *Nitre* or *saltpetre* is obtained from the soil in several parts of India, but particularly in Bengal, from whence we get almost all that is brought to England. Its chief use is in the manufacture of gunpowder and nitric acid.

6. *Borax*,* a substance used in many manufactures, but especially in the glazing of pottery, is largely exported from Calcutta; it is, however, chiefly obtained from Tibet, which is the principal region in the world for its production.

7. *Salt* is very largely obtained for native use in the province of Cuttack, in Cutch, and in several places along the coast. Valuable beds have been discovered in the valley of the Jhelum, in the Punjab, and in the Aravulli range, north of Ajmere.

8. *Diamonds* are found in India, but not in such abundance as they formerly were. Punnah, one of the Bundelcund states, is at present the most productive locality.

Golconda, near Hyderabad, was in former times very famous for the diamonds which were cut and polished there. These diamonds were not, as is commonly supposed, found at Golconda, but at a place in the extreme south of the Nizam's dominions. The celebrated Koh-i-noor, which now belongs to Queen Victoria, was originally found in this latter district.

Europe is at present furnished with diamonds chiefly from Brazil.

Many other kinds of precious stones are found in India and Ceylon. The latter island is especially famous for the number and variety of its gems.

CHAPTER VI.

Vegetable Productions.

1. THE vegetable productions of India are of more importance than the minerals. They are of the most varied kinds, according to the soil, temperature, and moisture of different parts of the country.

The larger part of the population are Hindoos (see chap. ix. § 2), and are forbidden by their religion to eat flesh: hence the great importance of the cultivation of vegetable food.

* Borax in its natural state is called *tincal*, and is imported from India under this name. Owing to the smallness of the supply of tincal, borax is now largely manufactured from a substance obtained from the lagoons of Tuscany.

Digitized by Google

2. Those substances which are used as food claim the first attention. They belong chiefly to two classes: viz., the CEREALS, such as *wheat*, *barley*, *millet*, *maize*, *rice*, which are grown mostly in the rainy season; and PULSE, such as the *bean* and *pea*, which are grown mostly in the dry season.

Wheat is cultivated in the plain of the Upper Ganges, the Punjab, and Sinde. In northern India it forms, with barley, the staple article of food; but in the lower valley of the Ganges, on the banks of the large rivers, and at most of the deltas, rice is the chief food. In inland districts, where the staple food is millet, rice is eaten only by the rich.

It is a common opinion in Europe that the natives of India live chiefly upon rice. This opinion, founded on only partial observation, is quite wrong; for, excepting in Bengal, the number of persons who never taste that grain far exceeds the number of those who live upon it. Rice is rarely eaten alone; a little pulse being generally added to the grain, just as we add meat to bread. Various kinds of millet form a larger part of the food of the people of India than all the other cereals put together. Maize, when used for food, is not prepared in the same manner as wheat, but is eaten either boiled as a green vegetable or roasted.

Rice is the principal grain exported from India. Within the last fifteen years, Arracan has become the granary of a large part of India and Europe, and the rice-garden of our Eastern possessions. It now competes with Bengal in the rice-trade of India. About 300,000 tons of rice are exported annually from Arracan, besides large quantities from Moulmein, Tavoy, and Mergui, further south. Calcutta exports about 200,000 tons, of which half goes to Europe, a fourth to the Mauritius, and the rest to Australia and America. From Madras the exports are about 90,000 tons.

3. The next most valuable products are *cotton*, *opium*, *indigo*, *sugar*, *coffee*, *linseed*, *jute*, *pepper*, and *spices*; most of which, except cotton, are cultivated specially for exportation.

4. *Cotton* grows well in most parts of the country, particularly in the Deccan, Guzerat, Sinde, and the valley of the Jumna. It is cultivated chiefly for native use, but is now sent to Great Britain in large quantities.

Far more would be exported, only the want of roads renders its carriage to the coast too expensive. The construction of railroads, it is hoped, will soon supply this want. A considerable proportion of the cotton yearly imported into England comes from India, chiefly from Bombay; but the quantity annually grown in the country is estimated at more than double the average consumption of Great

Digitized by Google

Britain. Great efforts are now making to increase the exportation of cotton fit for British use since the failure of the American supply, owing to the war in the United States; and there is every prospect that they will be successful.*

Opium is raised only in Bahar, Benares, and Indore. The produce of the crop, valued at £4,000,000 annually, is exported to China, where it is largely consumed.

Indigo is cultivated chiefly in the valley of the Ganges, between Dacca and Delhi, the most productive region being just east of the Gunduck. It is also largely grown in Candeish.

The produce of the crop is valued at £3,000,000 annually. Europe was formerly supplied with this dye from Guatemala and South America; but it is now almost entirely supplied from Calcutta, which is the best market in the world for it.

The *sugar-cane* grows all over India, but, owing to its inferior cultivation, the sugar produced is not so good as that from the West Indies or the Mauritius: the quality is, however, improving, and the exports are gradually increasing.

Coffee is cultivated, in enormous quantities, in Ceylon and the Bombay Presidency. Nearly two-thirds of our total annual importation comes to us from Ceylon.

Pepper is grown most largely in Malabar, from whence we import annually 3,000 tons, or more than two-thirds of the whole quantity brought to Great Britain.

Cinnamon is grown in larger quantities in Ceylon than in any other part of the world.

Hemp and *linseed*, which a few years since were obtained almost entirely from Russia, are now largely exported from India, to the amount of upwards of 10,000,000 lbs.

The greater part of the so-called hemp exported from India is not the produce of the true hemp-plant, but of one totally different. It is properly designated *sunn*, though it is always known in commerce as hemp. The fibre is prepared in the ordinary way by steeping. The

* Of our imports, *raw cotton* is first in value. No less than 250,000,000 lbs. weight of this material, worth £5,500,000, reached this country from India in 1857; and in 1861 the quantity had increased to 369,000,000 lbs. There is no doubt that, whatever be the political result of the war in the United States, the American cotton monopoly is at an end; and there is good reason to hope that the Indian article, which is in many respects superior, may largely take its place, as its cultivation has already been vastly extended in India with that object in view.

Digitized by Google

true hemp-plant is grown in India chiefly for the intoxicating properties of the resin, called *bhang*, which exudes from its leaves.

Linseed is the seed of the flax-plant, which is at present cultivated in India almost exclusively for the sake of its seed. It is used for making oil. In 1861 India sent 100,000 tons to Great Britain.

Jute is a fibre something like coarse flax, for which it is substituted. Its growth is almost confined to Bengal.

The manufacture of jute has but recently sprung up in Great Britain, and now we import upwards of 50,000 tons of the raw material annually, which is nearly all manufactured at Dundee.

To the above list of exports may be added many sorts of oils, including *linseed oil* and 30,000 cwt. of *castor oil*; many sorts of *dyes*; millions of *cocoa-nuts*, with *cocoa-nut oil* and cocoa-nut fibre (called *coir*), from Ceylon; *teak* and other timber used in ship-building, chiefly from Malabar and Tenasserim; *tea* from Assam, and also from Cachar, a district to the south of Assam, in which a large number of tea-plantations have been recently formed; *gums*, *drugs*, *senna-leaves*, *perfumes*, *fancy woods*, *fruits*, and other produce of the most various kinds from different places.*

It is hoped that *quinine* may soon be reckoned among the valuable exports of India, a large number of cinchona-trees having been recently successfully transplanted there from the Andes.

5. Of the peculiar trees of India, the banyan is the most remarkable. It grows to an immense height, and the branches throw out shoots which reach to the ground, take root, and become new trunks, sending out fresh branches.

One tree, on an island in the Nerbudda, covers four acres. During the wet season, the population of the neighbourhood dwell among its branches till the river has subsided. There are several similar trees in India which can each give shelter to 8000 persons.

---

* It is worthy of notice that the recent expansion of our imports from India has not been in the old and peculiar staples of the country, such as indigo, lac-dye, shellac, pepper, &c., but in articles which, twenty years ago (and some much less) were not obtained at all from India. The value of such comparatively new articles of import, comprising hemp, hides, rice, sugar, rape-seed and linseed, teak, wool, and various new fibrous materials, amounts to a sum not much short of £10,000,000 annually.

Digitized by Google

CHAPTER VII.

Animals and Animal Productions.

1. The *tiger* stands foremost among the wild animals of India, where it attains to its greatest strength and beauty. It is found all over the country, but its chief haunt is the jungle. Hence it is most common in the Sunderbunds and in the Terai. The *lion*, *leopard*, *panther*, *hyæna*, *wolf*, *bear*, *lynx*, and *jackal*, are the other important beasts of prey. *Wild elephants* are numerous in the forest zone at the base of the Himálaya Mountains, in Assam, Chittagong, Coorg, and especially in Ceylon. The *rhinoceros* is found in the same districts as the elephant, and also near the Sunderbunds.

So much of the jungle has been cleared of late years, and the tiger has been hunted to such an extent, that it is not often met with in India now. The lion is found only in the north-west of Hindostan, chiefly in Rajpootana and Guzerat. The elephant is a common beast of burden in the towns. Large numbers are caught, and tamed for this purpose.

There are many species of the ox tribe in India. The most common is the *zebu*, or Brahmin bull, which has a hump on its shoulders.

It is frequently saddled for riding, or harnessed to a carriage. The Hindoos venerate it, and hold its slaughter to be a sin. Zebus may be seen every day wandering about the streets of the towns and villages, and eating rice and other grain from the stalls in the bazaars unmolested.

The Gayal, another species of immense size, lives in the hill-forests on the north-east of the Bay of Bengal.

The wild buffaloes of India are very fierce animals.

The *stag*, *elk*, *antelope*, and *deer* of various kinds are abundant. *Apes* and *monkeys* innumerable harbour in the woods, and some species infest the towns. The *ouran-outang* occurs sparingly. Herds of *wild asses* run over the desert, and troops of *wild dogs* infest the towns.

Crocodiles are common in all the great rivers. The streams, tanks, and inlets of Malabar swarm with *alligators*. Venomous *reptiles* are very numerous. The huge python, one of the largest species of serpents, is sometimes met with.

Wild peacocks are found in Northern India and in Ceylon. A kind of *stork*, which from its stately walk has obtained the name of the *adjutant-bird*, frequents the towns of Bengal

Digitized by Google

in great numbers, where it acts the part of a scavenger, feeding on the refuse thrown into the streets.

2. The productions of the animal kingdom that form articles of export are not very numerous. The chief are *silk*, *ivory*, *lac*, *elephants' teeth*, *Cashmere shawls* (made from the wool of the Cashmere goat), *buffalo-* and *deer-horns*, *skins*, *edible birds'-nests* from Arracan, and *wool* from Bombay. The once celebrated pearl-fishery between India and Ceylon has been quite abandoned for several years.

The quantity of wool imported into Great Britain from India has increased to more than 20,000,000 lbs. annually.

Lac, or gum-shellac, is a resinous substance formed by an insect, similar to the cochineal insect, on the branches and twigs of many trees. The great use of it is in the manufacture of hats, of sealing-wax, and of varnish. The insect itself forms a red dye, as bright as that from the cochineal insect, and much more lasting.

CHAPTER VIII.

Government, Political Divisions, Towns, and Public Works.

1. About two-thirds of the whole of Hindostan is now under the direct rule of Queen Victoria, and is known as British India. The rest is under native princes, tributary to the Queen, who engages to protect them; hence their dominions are known as Protected States.

2. The British territory in India, exclusive of Ceylon, may be regarded as at present arranged under the following heads:—

(*a*) *Presidencies.*

Bengal, Madras, and Bombay.

(*b*) *Lieutenant-Governorships.*

The Punjab, the North-west Provinces, Oude, and British Burmah.

(*c*) *Chief Commissionership.*

The Central Provinces.

Most of the above-named great political divisions consist for the most part of a number of old Mohammedan or other pro-

Digitized by Google

vinces, which for the purpose of government have been made to form, or have been divided into, districts called *Collectorates.* These collectorates are under the immediate superintendence of officers called *Collectors*, and are named generally after the chief town contained in them. Except in Madras and Bombay, several collectorates are grouped to form a *Division*, named likewise after the chief town contained in it.

The following table, based upon information furnished by the Calcutta Government to the Secretary of State for India in 1862, represents approximately the relative area and population of the British and other territory in India, exclusive of Ceylon :—

Name.	Area in Square Miles.	Population.
Bengal	266,100	41,125,000
Madras	153,400	26,567,000
Bombay and Sinde	142,000	12,421,000
The Punjab	100,400	14,795,000
North-West Provinces	84,400	28,070,000
Oude	27,900	8,071,000
Central Provinces	120,500	7,484,000
British Burmah	83,000	2,098,000
Sum	977,700	140,631,000
Other native States under the Government of India*	191,000	16,173,000
Total under British rule	1,168,700	156,804,000
Protected Native States* ..	570,000	37,000,000
French and Portuguese Territory	1,300	576,000
Total	1,740,000	194,380,000

* See § 13. The numbers given under the head of *Protected Native States* are of the vaguest description, depending in many cases upon a mere guess; in addition to which it is possible that some of the States included should be returned as British Territory, and *vice versâ.*

Digitized by Google

3. Until recently the government of British India was virtually in the hands of a chartered Company in England, known as the *East India Company*, which was originally formed at the close of Elizabeth's reign, in the year 1600, for the purpose of trading with India.* In the year 1858 the government was transferred from this Company to Queen Victoria, who then became Empress of India. The general administration of this vast territory is now vested in a Secretary of State for India, and a Council composed of fifteen members, who are nominated by the Crown, and hold office during the pleasure of the Sovereign. The Secretary of State is President of this Council, but may act independently of it. He is also a member of the Cabinet, with which he loses office; and is responsible for his acts to the English Parliament. The local government is carried on by a Governor-General or Viceroy, appointed by the Queen, who is at the head of a Supreme Council in India, in which the legislative, financial, and other matters relating to the country are managed.

The government of India is no longer blended, as it used to be, with the government of Bengal. Two separate legislative assemblies now sit in Calcutta,—the legislature of India, and the legislature of Bengal. The Governor-General exercises general authority over the whole of British India, but more especially over Bengal, Allahabad, the North-West Provinces, Oude, and the Punjab, which are under the direction of his Lieutenant-governors, and are visited and inspected by him in person. Bombay and Madras are under Governors appointed by the Queen, and are rarely or never visited by the Viceroy, although their affairs are to a certain degree regulated by the instructions of the Governor-General and his Council. Their Governors are empowered to elect each a Legislative Council, but all measures passed by it require the sanction of the Viceroy to become valid.

The Council of the Viceroy is composed of five ordinary members, three of whom are appointed by the Secretary of State in Council from among persons who have been servants of the Crown. The remaining two, one of whom must be a barrister of not less than five years' standing, are appointed by Her Majesty's warrant. There is also a financial member who may be termed the Chancellor of the Indian Exchequer. He need not be either a civil or a military servant, but may be sent direct from England. The Council thus formed discusses with the Viceroy all matters of administration; but he may act inde-

* See *British Colonies*, No. I., chap. vii. § 3.

Digitized by Google

pendently of its advice either in war or peace, after placing on record his reasons for so doing.*

4. The PRESIDENCY OF BENGAL includes the old provinces of *Bahar* and *Bengal* in the lower valley of the Ganges, below the confluence of the Gogra; *Assam*, in the valley of the Brahmaputra; *Chittagong*, on the north-eastern, and *Cuttack*, on the north-western coast of the Bay of Bengal; together with a number of collectorates south of Bahar, and north-east of Nagpore, called the *South-West Frontier.*

The boundaries of the Presidency are: on the north, Nepal, Sikkim, and Bhotan; on the east, Burmah and Siam; on the south, the Bay of Bengal; and on the west, Nagpore, Rewah, and the North-West Provinces.

The old province of Bahar now forms the two divisions *Patna* and *Bhaugulpore,* comprising ten collectorates; and that of Bengal the divisions *Moorshedabad, Dacca,* and *Jessore,* together comprising eighteen collectorates.

The chief towns in the presidency are CALCUTTA, *Jessore, Moorshedabad, Dacca,* and *Burdwan* in Bengal; and *Patna* in Bahar.

CALCUTTA, the capital of British India, situate on the Hooghly, a branch of the Ganges, became the seat of the supreme government under Warren Hastings. The population of the city and its suburbs, which is probably over 1,000,000, occupy a territory where, a century ago, there were only a few miserable hamlets. The place is well laid out, and contains so many handsome buildings that it is frequently called the City of Palaces.

5. The NORTH-WESTERN PROVINCES comprise the British territory around *Oude,* extending along the valley of the Ganges, from the confluence of the Gogra to the main stream of the upper Jumna; besides certain *Non-regulation Districts* (so called because they are not yet brought under the ordinary system of civil rule), such as *Kumaon* and *Gurwhal* west

* By the "Indian Councils" Act of Parliament of 1861, the Viceroy may form this Executive Council into a Legislative one by nominating for a period of two years from six to twelve additional members, one-half of whom must not hold any appointment under the Crown in India. The Council thus formed in 1862 contained five European gentlemen and three natives of India. So the Legislative Council of Bengal is at present composed of four official and four non-official Europeans, with three native gentlemen.

Digitized by Google

of Nepal, *Ajmere* in the middle of Rajpootana, *Jhansi*, and others. That portion immediately around Oude is arranged under the divisions of *Benares* to the east; *Allahabad* to the south; and *Agra*, *Rohilcund* and *Meerut* to the west of Oude. The division of *Jhansi* lies immediately south of *Agra*.

The division of *Benares* comprises the lower valley of the Gogra, with portions of the valleys of the Goomtee, Ganges, and Sone; and stretches from Nepal to beyond the river Sone. The division of *Allahabad* comprises the Lower Doab, together with a strip of territory on the right bank of the lower Jumna; and has for chief towns *Allahabad* and *Cawnpore*. That of *Agra* comprises the Middle Doab, with a strip of territory on the right bank of the Jumna opposite, and has for chief towns *Agra*, *Furruckabad*, and *Muttra*. That of *Rohilcund* lies between the upper Ganges and Oude. That of *Meerut* comprises the Upper Doab. The chief towns of this District are—*Allahabad*, the capital, and *Cawnpore* in the division of Allahabad; *Benares*, *Mirzapore*, and *Goruckpore* in the division of Benares; *Agra*, *Furruckabad*, and *Muttra* in the division of Agra; *Bareilly* in Rohilcund; and *Meerut* and *Allyghur* in the division of Meerut.

6. The territory of *Oude* comprises only the recently annexed kingdom of the same name, lying between the meridians of 80° and 83° E. long., and bounded by Nepal on the north and the Ganges on the south. The country is well watered by the Goomtee and other streams flowing in a south-easterly direction into the Ganges, and has a very healthy climate. The affairs of Oude are administered by a Lieutenant-Governor, who will probably be eventually assisted by a Legislative Council. The capital is *Lucknow*, on the Goomtee.

The British Government assumed the administration of this province in 1856. The mutiny of 1857-8 necessitated its re-subjection, which was not completed till 1859, when, as a consequence, the province was disarmed, and nearly two thousand forts were destroyed. The leading landholders have been since invested with magisterial functions, so that their interests have become identical with those of the British Government; and the district is now in as satisfactory a state as any part of India.

7. The political division commonly known as THE PUNJAB, comprises the old province of the Punjab, divided into the districts of *Mooltan*, *Lahore*, *Umritsur*, *Jhelum*, *Jullundur*, *Leia*, and *Peshawur*; together with the British territory

Digitized by Google

lying between the upper portions of the Sutlej and Jumna, forming the districts of *Delhi*, *Hissar*, and the *Cis-Sutlej States*. The chief towns in the Vice-Presidency are *Lahore* the seat of government, *Delhi*, *Umritsur*, *Mooltan*, *Ferozepore*, and *Peshawur*.

There are numerous small native states under the supervision, and more or less under the control of, the Lieutenant-Governor of the Punjab, having a total area greater than that of the territory immediately under his rule. (See § 13.)

8 The Chief-Commissionership of THE CENTRAL PROVINCES comprises a recently-formed district in the north of the Deccan, including chiefly the province of *Nagpore* and the British possessions to the north-west of it, known as the *Saugor* and *Nerbudda Territory*. It is watered by the Mahanuddy in the north-east; the Godavery, which forms its southern boundary, in the south; and the upper portions of the Nerbudda and Taptee in the west. The capital of the territory is *Nagpore*.

The organization of this province is not yet (Jan. 1863) completed and hence nothing further can be said as to its government or divisions. It is on the whole very fertile, and its western part is one of the chief cotton regions of India.

9. The PRESIDENCY OF MADRAS comprises nearly the whole of India south of the Kistnah and its tributary the Toombudra, together with the old province of the *Circars'*, lying on the coast south of Cuttack.

The great divisions of the Presidency are—(*a*) The district formerly known as the *Circars*; (*b*) that formerly known as the *Carnatic*, a coast province, extending from Guntoor to Cape Comorin, with an average breadth of 75 miles; (*c*) the *Ceded Districts* on the north-east of Mysore; (*d*) *Coimbatore*, on the right bank, and *Salem* on the left bank, of the Cauvery, both south-east of Mysore; and (*e*) *Can'ara* and *Malabar*, two districts on the western coast, between Mysore and the sea. The area above-mentioned comprises the native provinces of *Travancore* and *Cochin* (for which see § 13), and also *Mysore* and *Coorg*, two districts which, though not included in the Presidency Census, are to all intents and purposes under the actual government of the Madras authorities, and may therefore be strictly regarded as British territory.

Digitized by Google

The district of the Circars is now subdivided into the five collectorates of *Ganjam*, *Vizagapatam*, *Rajamundry*, *Masulipatam*, and *Guntoor*; and that of the Carnatic into the nine collectorates of *Nellore*, *North and South Arcot*, *Madras City*, *Chingleput*, *Trichinopoly*, *Tanjore*, *Madura* and *Tinnevelly*. The *Ceded Districts* are so called from having been ceded to the British by the Nizam in the year 1800; they now form the collectorates of *Bellary*, *Cuddapah* and *Kurnool*.

Mysore lies between the parallels of 11° and 15° N. lat., and is larger than the mainland of Scotland. For nearly forty years this state was under the rule of the celebrated Hyder Ali and his son Tippoo. Its native Hindoo ruler was set aside in 1832, on the plea of incompetency, and has since received an annual allowance; and the country is now ruled by a British Commissioner. Its chief towns are *Mysore*, the present capital; *Seringapatam*, the former capital; and Bangalore. Westward of Mysore lies the ancient Hindoo principality of *Coorg*, the Rajah of which was dethroned in 1834, when the sovereignty was assumed by the Indian Government.

The chief towns in the Presidency are, MADRAS, the capital; *Tanjore*; *Trichinop'oly*; and *Tinnevelly*. *Masulipatam* and *Nellore*, near the eastern coast, and *Mangalore* and *Calicut*, on the western coast, are other places of importance.

The city of Madras is almost the oldest British possession in India. It is badly situated for commercial purposes, possessing no harbour, and having only an open roadstead with dangerous landing during the greater part of the year. This serious defect will, however, shortly be remedied by the completion of a landing-pier which is now in course of construction. Strangely enough, along the whole 1700 miles of sea-coast belonging to the Presidency there is not a single harbour adapted for the entry of large-sized trading-vessels.

10. The PRESIDENCY OF BOMBAY includes all that part of the Deccan north of the Toombudra and west of the Nizam's dominions, together with a narrow belt of land around the Gulf of Cambay, and the great province of *Sinde*.

The portion of British territory around the Gulf of Cambay forms the districts of *Ahmedabad*, *Kairah*, *Broach*, and *Surat*. South of Surat, and between the Western Ghauts and the sea, are the districts of *Tannah* and *Rutnagherry*, formerly known as *North and South Concan*; and south of the Portuguese territory of Goa is *North Canara*. On the Deccan are the districts of *Candeish*, in the valley of the Taptee; *Ahmednug'gur*, *Poo'nah*, *Sholapore*, *Satta'ra*, and *Belgaum* between the Western Ghauts and the Nizam's dominions; and *Dharwar* to the east of North Canara.

The chief towns of the Presidency are—BOMBAY, the capital, on a small island west of Tannah; *Ahmedabad*; *Surat*;

Digitized by Google

Bejapore, in Satta'ra; *Hyderabad'*, on the Indus, in Sinde; and *Kurra'chee*, at the south-west corner of Sinde—an important seaport.

Bombay was originally a group of unhealthy, rocky and marshy islets, which have been rendered healthy by drainage, and exclusion of the sea. It now possesses a spacious dockyard, and is the only port in India available for the resort and refitment of a large fleet. The island is advantageously situated for commerce, and hence its population and wealth have largely increased.

11. BRITISH BURMAH is a newly constituted province, comprising at present *Arracan*, *Pegu*, *Martaban*, and the *Tenasserim Provinces*, all situate on the eastern side of the Bay of Bengal, along which they extend for about 700 miles; and also what are called the *Straits' Settlements*. The territory consists for the most part of a flat, alluvial, rice-growing region, backed by hills rising into ranges of forest-clad mountains. Its chief towns are *Bassein*, *Nagpore*, *Rangoon*, and *Prome*, in Pegu; *Moulmein*, in the north of Tenasserim; and *Singapore*, on the island of Singapore.

The Tenasserim provinces adjoin Pegu, and are four in number, viz., *Amherst*, *Ye*, *Tavoy*, and *Mergui:* they lie along the northern part of the western coast of the Malay peninsula. The Straits' Settlements comprise the island of *Penang*, on the western coast of the Malay peninsula, with *Wellesley Province* on the mainland, opposite to it; the town of *Malacca*, and the town and island of *Singapore* at the southern extremity of the peninsula.

12. The ISLAND OF CEYLON has long been a royal colony, under a Governor appointed by the Sovereign of Great Britain: it is not, therefore, included in either of the Presidencies. Its chief towns are, *Colombo*, *Candy*, and *Trincomalee*.

13. The *Protected Native States*, so called because they are still ruled by native princes and chiefs, are scattered throughout India; but are all under the Political Supremacy and Protection of the British Government. They may be considered as of two classes, the first embracing those which are more or less under the actual government of one or other of the Presidencies, although their native rulers are still retained; and the second, those which are less definitely connected with British administration, their native rulers being only aided by the advice of a British resident stationed at the court of the prince.

Among states of the first class may be mentioned TRAVANCORE, COCHIN, JEYPORE and other hill districts, connected

Digitized by Google

with Madras; GUZERAT, CUTCH, KOLAPORE, SATTARA and others, connected with Bombay; and FURRUCKNUGGUR, BHAWULPORE, PUTTIALA and numerous smaller ones, connected with the Punjab.

Travancore is the most southern state on the western coast of India. Its capital is *Trivandrum*. *Cochin* is situated just north of Travancore, and has for its capital *Trichoor*. The town of Cochin, from which the state is named, now belongs to the British, and is included in the district of Malabar. *Jeypore* is bounded on the south by the Godavery, and on the west by Nagpore.

Guzerat, called also the *Guicowar's Dominions*, from "Guicowar" the native title of the ruler, lies to the south of Rajpootana and to the west of Malwa. This district includes the peninsula of Kattywar, between the gulfs of Cutch and Cambay, which is divided among upwards of 200 chiefs, who are all tributary either to the Guicowar or to the British. *Cutch* is a similar territory, separated from Sinde by a great salt marsh called the Runn. It is divided among chieftains, who are all subject to one head, called the Rao. *Kolapore* is a small territory lying to the west of Belgaum. *Sattara* lies immediately to the south of Poonah. The total area of the states in this class is roughly estimated, according to the latest information, at 191,000 square miles, and their population, who are regarded as British subjects, at 16,173,000.

Among states of the second class the chief are HYDERABAD, CASHMERE, NEPAL, GWALIOR, INDORE, BHOPAL, the RAJPOOT STATES, TIPPERAH, COOCH BEHAR and SIKKIM.

Hyderabad, or the *Nizam's Dominions*, the largest of all the Protected States, lies between the Godavery and the Kistnah. The capital is *Hyderabad*, on a small tributary of the Kistnah.

The *Rajpoot States* form the province known as *Rajpoot'ana*, i. e. the country of the Rajpoots, a district lying between the Sutlej and the Chumbul, and including the Great Desert of India.

The *Gwalior Territory*, called also *Scindia's Dominions*, from Scindia, the founder of the state, consists of several detached districts in Malwa, south of the Chumbul, and one on the left bank of the Nerbudda. The capital is *Gwalior*, near the Chumbul. *Bhopal* is a small state on the right bank of the Nerbudda, with a capital of the same name.

The *Indore Territory*, called also *Holkar's Dominions*, from Holkar, the founder of the state, consists of several detached districts in Malwa, the largest of which is equally divided by the Nerbudda. The capital is *Indore*.

Cashmere is in the Himalaya mountains, north-east of the Punjab, in the upper valley of the Jhelum; its northern limit reaches to the *Keun-lun*, which just there forms really the northern boundary of

Digitized by Google

India. The valley of Cashmere is celebrated as one of the most lovely spots in the world. The capital of the state is *Sirinagur*.

To the above may be added a collection of small native districts called *Bundelcund States*, east of Gwalior; and numerous others known as the *Cuttack Mahals* in Orissa.

The total area of the states included in this class is roughly estimated at 570,000 square miles, and their population at 37,000,000.

14. The French possess in India five towns, viz., *Chandernagore* on the banks of the Hooghly, just north of Calcutta; *Yanaon*, on the Coringa branch of the Godavery; *Pondicher'ry*, just north of the southern Pennair; *Karical*, near one of the mouths of the Cauvery; and *Mahe'*, on the coast of Malabar.

The Portuguese possess the district of *Goa*, lying to the north of Canara; the fort of *Daman*, south of Surat, and the fort of *Diu*, the most southern point of the peninsula of Kattywar.

15. *Public Works*. Until recently very little attention was paid to public works, but now great energy is manifested in every part of India to render locomotion easy, and to open out facilities for commerce. The construction of roads, railroads and canals, as well as of telegraphic lines, has in consequence proceeded with great rapidity, and the result has proved already most beneficial to the country.

The longest of the main roads that have been recently constructed is that known as the *Grand Trunk Road* from Calcutta to Peshawur. A great branch road leaves this at Benares, running through Bundelcund and Berar to Bombay. Numerous other roads have been established in various parts of Bengal and the other Presidencies. Twenty-five years ago it was thought a great thing that cotton should be brought down from the Deccan to the western coast on bullocks' backs; now, communication is established with the Deccan by five carriage-roads.

The construction of 4000 miles of railway has been sanctioned by the Indian Government. The work has been undertaken by private companies; but the land has been given, and the interest of the money spent has been guaranteed, by the Government. Regard has been had, in marking out the lines of railway, to political and military, as well as commercial objects; and special attention has been paid to the great cotton-growing districts, that their produce should have immediate communication with the sea-coast.

The following are the most important railways already finished, or nearly so:—

Digitized by Google

By the *East Indian Railway Company*, a line from Calcutta to Delhi, *viâ* Rajmahal, Allahabad and Cawnpore, with various branches, especially one from Allahabad to Jubbulpore.

By the *Madras Railway Company*, a line from Madras to Beypore, right across the Deccan, and another to the Kistnah, *viâ* Cuddapah and Bellary.

By the *Great Indian Peninsula Railway Company*, a line from Bombay, in a N.E. direction, to Jubbulpore, thus rendering the communication continuous with Allahabad and Calcutta; and another in a S.E. direction to the Kistnah, *viâ* Poonah and Sholapore, to meet the line from Madras.

By the *Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway Company*, a line from Bombay to Ahmedabad, *viâ* Surat.

Shorter lines exist from Negapatam on the Coromandel coast to Trichinopoly; from Kurrachee to Kotree on the Indus; and from Lahore to Umritsur; and the latter will shortly be continued from Umritsur to Delhi.

The construction of canals for the purpose of irrigation, as well as for the transit of goods, is not less worthy of note than the railways. The benefits rendered by them is invaluable, and the magnitude of several of them unequalled; thousands of square miles of country which would otherwise be little better than desert being by their means rendered as fertile as any part of India.

The West Jumna Canal, viewed as a means of irrigation, is equal in length to five times all the main lines of Lombardy and Egypt together; and the length of the Eastern Jumna Canal is greater than that of the four largest canals of France, or of all the first-class canals of Holland together. Works of enormous magnitude have been undertaken on the Godavery, and in no part of India has more been done for irrigation than in the Punjab.

The system of telegraphic lines is most complete, and extends already over above 11,000 miles of country, so that there is direct or nearly direct communication between all the important cities throughout the length and breadth of India.

CHAPTER IX.

Population, Religions.

1. India contains 195,000,000 of inhabitants—a population equal to that of the five great states of Europe, four times as

Digitized by Google

great as that of North and South America, and nine times as great as that of England and Wales.

The strictly British Territory, though comprising about two-thirds of the whole area of India (see ch. viii. § 1), includes nearly three-fourths of its people. In the native states there are only 115 inhabitants to the square mile, while those under British sway (if we except Sinde) contain 205 within a similar area.*

2. About four-fifths of the people of India belong to the Hindoo race. The poorer Hindoos are mostly simple in their habits. Their dwellings are generally of the lightest kind. The cottage furniture is scanty: there are no tables; a mat serves the purpose of a chair; while a few earthen pots and brass vessels, a hand-mill, a mortar and pestle for bruising their grain, and an iron plate for baking their cakes, are the chief domestic articles they require.

In Bengal the cottages of the peasantry have cane walls and thatched roofs; in the north-west provinces they are built usually of unburnt brick, and are tiled; in the Deccan they are either of mud or stone with terraced roofs. Many of the villages are walled, or surrounded by a fence. Each has a temple and a bazaar, holds an annual fair, and celebrates an annual festival.

3. Though the Hindoos now form the bulk of the inhabitants of India, it is satisfactorily proved that they are not what is commonly called an aboriginal population, but are descended from a people who came into the country from the north-west long before the Christian era, and settled in Hindostan Proper. It was not till many centuries after their first entry into the country that Hindoos made their way into the Deccan.

In common with nearly the whole population of Europe, they belong to that race now called Indo-European. In the north, where they are purest, they are generally tall, and comparatively fair, with oval faces, high forehead, straight nose, thin lips, dark hair, and dark expressive eyes. Their skin is soft and polished, brown rather than black, and darkest in those who have become mixed up with the black aboriginal tribes. A great number of them, especially in the north, where the race is purest, are not darker than Italians.

The religion of the Hindoos is Brahminism, one of the

* As a standard of comparison it may be remarked, that Belgium, the most thickly peopled country in Europe, has, according to the last census, 407 inhabitants to the square mile; and England has 372; while some parts of Bengal have 698.

Digitized by Google

worst forms of heathenism, consisting in the worship of millions of idols, and full of most cruel and revolting rites. There is a very remarkable social institution among them known as *caste*.* Originally there appear to have been four great castes or classes, viz., the Brahmins or priests, the soldiers, the merchants, and the labourers; but each of these was long ago resolved into many complex subdivisions. It is said that there are at present, probably, 200 different castes existing in the various parts of India: owing, however, to Mohammedan and English influence, the distinctions between them have been very much weakened.

Three forms of worship have sprung from Brahminism, and exist with it in India, viz.—*Buddhism*, in Ceylon, Nepal, and India east of the Bay of Bengal; a religion which was formerly spread over the whole of South India, and now numbers more followers than any other in the world; *Jainism* in Guzerat, Rajpootana, and the neighbouring districts; and the *Sikh Faith* in the Punjab. The sacred books of the Brahmins are called the Vedas.

As a rule, a person may not marry out of his caste, nor eat, nor associate with one of a lower caste than himself. The Brahmins form the highest caste. The lowest caste are very much despised and oppressed, and in some districts they were formerly even forbidden to go on the highways, lest their shadow might pollute the Brahmins.

The Mahrattas were a Hindoo race who obtained pre-eminent power in India after the Mohammedans, in the latter part of last century. The chief Mahratta states are *Gwalior*, *Indore*, and *Guzerat;* but the largest Mahratta population is found in *Candeish*, *Poonah*, *Sattara*, and *Tannah*, districts of the Bombay Presidency. Sattara was formerly the headquarters of the race.

4. Next to the Hindoos in number are the Mohammedans, of whom there are about 15,000,000 scattered over India. These are mostly of Arab, Persian, or Afghan race, descended from early conquerors, who came into India also from the north-west during the seventh and succeeding centuries, and forced their religion on many of the Hindoos.

The whole peninsula of India was at one time entirely under Mohammedan rule. All the sovereigns of the Mogul dynasty were Mohammedans. The principal Mohammedan districts are the *Nizam's Dominions*, *Bhopal*, *Oude*, and the *North-West Provinces*.

5. Besides the Hindoos and Mohammedans, there is a numerous class of people, far less civilised than either, dwelling in the most inaccessible parts of the country, chiefly in

* The term *caste* is Portuguese, and means race.

Digitized by Google

the mountain districts. These are generally regarded as the *aboriginal* tribes of India, *i. e.*, the descendants of those inhabitants who lived in the country before the Hindoos came. It is believed that these tribes belong to one stock, which was once spread over India, in the same way that the Celts were once spread over Great Britain; and just as the Celts of Scotland, Wales, and Cornwall, are now separated by Anglo-Saxons, so the remains of this aboriginal race, which is supposed to number at present some 20,000,000, are separated from each other by Hindoos.

They have Mongolian rather than Caucasian features, viz., high cheek-bones, flat noses, and thick lips; and their skin is mostly black. They are not idolaters like the Hindoos, but are said to be, for the most part, devil-worshippers.

The best-known of these numerous tribes are the *Bheels*, at the western end of the Vindhya Chain, especially in Candeish and Indore; the *Gonds* in the eastern portion of the same chain, in the district called from them Gondwana; the *Coles* and the *Khonds* in the northern part of the Eastern Ghauts; and the *Shanars* of Tinnevelly.

In the south of the Deccan the Hindoos have become much mixed with them, and speak languages very different from those in use among the Hindoos of the north of India.

6. In the neighbourhood of Bombay there are about 150,000 *Parsees*, descendants of Persians who fled to India from Mohammedan persecution in the seventh century.

The Parsees, or Fire-worshippers, still preserve their ancient mode of adoration paid to the sun, and also the old ceremony of exposing their dead as food for the fowls of the air. In other respects they have entirely adopted English customs, speaking the English language, engaging largely in all branches of trade, and excelling in ship-building. A large part of the commerce of Bombay is in their hands.

7. In the neighbourhood of Cochin is a curious colony of *Black Jews*, who have been established there probably since the third century.

8. Of Europeans in India the most numerous are the *English*, the *French*, and the *Portuguese*, together with a few *Dutch*, and some *Danes*.

9. Christianity is gradually spreading in India. About 200,000 natives have already become Christians. More than 10,000 children are under instruction in Mission schools. The country is divided into three bishoprics, corresponding with the three Presidencies. The island of Ceylon forms a separate bishopric, known as the diocese of Colombo.

Digitized by Google

APPENDIX.

PRONUNCIATION OF THE MOST DIFFICULT NAMES.

All words ending in *abad*, *ore*, and *patam*, have the accent on the last syllable.

F$\overset{1}{a}$t, f$\overset{2}{a}$ther, f$\overset{3}{a}$te, f$\overset{4}{a}$ll; m$\overset{1}{e}$t, m$\overset{2}{e}$te; t$\overset{1}{i}$n, f$\overset{2}{i}$ne, mach$\overset{3}{i}$ne; n$\overset{1}{o}$t, n$\overset{2}{o}$; n$\overset{1}{u}$t, m$\overset{2}{u}$te, r$\overset{3}{u}$le. (*ch* as in *church*,)

Af-ghan-is-t$\overset{4}{a}$n'.

Be-loo-*ch*is-t$\overset{4}{a}$n'.

B$\overset{1}{e}$n-$\overset{2}{a}$'-r$\overset{1}{e}$s.

Ben-g$\overset{4}{a}$l'.

Berar (B$\overset{3}{a}$-rar').

Bhopal (B$\overset{2}{o}$-p$\overset{4}{a}$l').

Bhotan (B$\overset{3}{u}$-t$\overset{2}{a}$n').

C$\overset{4}{a}$'-bul.

Çan'-a-ra.

Ch$\overset{2}{a}$n'-der-na-gore (ch as sh).

Ch$\overset{2}{e}$-n$\overset{4}{a}$b'.

Da-m$\overset{4}{a}$n'.

Delhi (D$\overset{1}{e}$l'-l$\overset{2}{e}$).

D$\overset{2}{o}$'-$\overset{2}{a}$b.

Guicowar (Gwick'-o-w$\overset{2}{a}$r).

G$\overset{3}{u}$-ze-r$\overset{4}{a}$t'.

Gw$\overset{4}{a}$'-li-or.

Hindostan (Hin-d$\overset{3}{u}$-st$\overset{1}{a}$n').

Himálaya (Him-$\overset{2}{a}$l'-y$\overset{2}{a}$).

K$\overset{1}{a}$-ri-c$\overset{4}{a}$l'.

Kur-r$\overset{2}{a}$'-*ch*ee.

Luck'-now.

Malwa (M$\overset{1}{o}$l'-w$\overset{2}{a}$).

Mool-t$\overset{2}{a}$n'.

Ne-p$\overset{4}{a}$l'.

Oude (Ood).

Peshawur (Pesh'-our).

Pondicherry) P$\overset{1}{o}$n-de-sh$\overset{1}{e}$r'-r$\overset{2}{e}$).

Pun'-j$\overset{4}{a}$b.

R$\overset{2}{a}$j-poo-t$\overset{2}{a}$'-na.

S$\overset{1}{a}$t-t$\overset{2}{a}$'-ra.

Seringapatam (Se-ring'-g$\overset{2}{a}$-p$\overset{3}{a}$-tam').

So-ly-m$\overset{4}{a}$n'.

S$\overset{3}{u}$-r$\overset{4}{a}$t'.

Tri*ch*-in-op'-o-ly.

Tri-choor (Tri-koor').

Trincomalee (Tring-co-ma-lee').

Vindhya (Vind'-y$\overset{2}{a}$).

Digitized by Google

COLONIES AND DEPENDENCIES IN ASIA (CONTINUED).

BRITISH INDIA.

[For the Geography of India, see 'British Colonies,' No. 11.]

History.—The early history of Hindostan is very obscure. Our first authentic accounts are derived from the Greek writers who celebrated the expedition of Alexander the Great into India, A.C. 330. At the end of the seventh century after Christ, it was invaded by the disciples of Mahomet, who, during the period from the seventh to the fourteenth century, gradually spread themselves over the whole country. The first permanent establishment of Mohammedan power in India was effected by *Mahmoud*, the chief of Ghuznee, a small newly-founded state situated in the Solyman Mountains. He made several expeditions into India during the years 1001–25 A.D., captured Delhi and other important cities, and destroyed many Hindoo temples. The Punjab was soon afterwards placed under a regular Mohammedan administration; and ultimately, about the beginning of the eleventh century the seat of Mohammedan government was changed from Guznee to Lahore, the capital of the Punjab. From that period the various Hindoo principalities began to fall steadily one by one, each after a desperate struggle, and only a very few were able to preserve a show of independence.

At the end of the fourteenth century, the great Timour or Tamerlane, a Tartar (properly *Tatar*), conquered Delhi, massacred an immense number of its inhabitants, and carried off a multitude of men and women into slavery. He caused himself to be proclaimed Emperor of India, though he took permanent possession only of the Punjab. But it was Baber, a descendant of his, who, claiming possession of India in right of his ancestor Timour, seized on Delhi, Agra, and other cities, and, after a series of victories, first succeeded in making himself master of Hindostan (1519-30). He firmly established the Tatar (improperly called Mogul) empire in India, and was the first of those sovereigns called Moguls. Akbar, his grandson (1555-1605) was the greatest and wisest of all the monarchs who ever swayed the sceptre in Hindostan.

The so-called Mogul power reached its culminating point of greatness and prosperity in Aurungzebe, who usurped the imperial authority in 1658, after imprisoning his father and killing his brothers. He destroyed the last of the independent Mohammedan kingdoms in

Digitized by Google

the Deccan, and also alienated the affections of the Hindoos by a spirit of bigotry which contrasted forcibly with the tolerant spirit shown by the preceding Indian princes of his house. The Rajpoots, Sikhs and others revolted against him in north-western Hindostan, while in the Deccan the Mahrattas (see p. 62) formed themselves into a powerful hostile state.*

On Aurungzebe's death, A.D. 1707, the empire rapidly fell to decay, and its various provinces were erected into independent states, the possession of which was determined among various Hindoo and Mohammedan adventurers by the sword. It was during the period of anarchy which marked the next 40 years that the East India Company took those first steps which have ended in giving the sceptre of a mightier Empire than any Mogul ever ruled over, into the hand of the Queen of England.

Europeans first visited India by sea at the end of the 15th century. Previous to this time the European trade with India had been carried on by the Venetians by way of Egypt and the Red Sea. The Portuguese—who, under VASCO DI GAMA, discovered the way to India by sea in 1498—soon established a trade which extinguished that of Venice, and their power became supreme throughout the Eastern seas. The Dutch first went round the Cape 1594, and attempted to make settlements in India and elsewhere. A long and bloody war with the Portuguese was the consequence; but the Dutch at last triumphed, and the Portuguese power declined. The success of the Portuguese and Dutch were not without influence on English merchants, who made numerous attempts to discover a north-west passage to India along the north of America, and a north-east passage along the north of Europe and Asia.†

In 1600, a London company was chartered for trade by Queen Elizabeth, which confined its trade to the islands of Eastern Asia: immense profits resulted. The charter was confirmed by James I., in 1609; and, soon afterwards, a settlement was established on the coast

---

* The Mahrattas were a native Hindoo race who in 1628, under their chief Sevajee, descended from the mountains on the western coast of India. They plundered the greater part of Hindostan, and gradually extended their power, so that by 1740 their territory extended from the Western Ocean to Orissa, and from Agra to the Carnatic. At first merely robbers, they rose to the dignity of conquerors, and subsequently formed a number of independent sovereignties of the minor Mahratta chieftains whose heirs became enemies to the British. The chief were:—(1) *Scindiah*, and (2) *Holkar*, who divided the old provinces of Malwa and Kandeish between them; (3) the *Guicowar*, who had part of Guzerat; (4) the *Rajah of Kolapoor;* and (5) the *Rajah of Concan*. The nominal Mahratta head was the heir of Sevajee, who lived at Sattara, but the real chief was the Peishwa, his minister who governed at Poonah.

† These attempts gave rise to that long series of Arctic voyages, most of which have been undertaken for the express purpose of finding a north-west passage along the continent of America. The last of these, under Captain M'Clintock, who set out in July, 1857, to complete the search for Sir John Franklin, and returned in September, 1859, shewed that that navigator was the first to make the passage, though he perished in the enterprise.

Digitized by Google

of Surat, 1612, by permission of the Mogul. Fort St. George, on the site of the present city of Madras, on the Coromandel coast, was settled by permission, in 1653, and from it connexions were formed with Bengal. In 1669 Bombay was given to the Company by Charles II. In 1683 it was made into a presidency, and declared the chief British station in India. In 1698 a piece of land on the Hooghly was purchased, and Fort William was erected. From this period trade gradually increased, and everything went on smoothly till 1745, when those changes commenced which eventually caused the English power to become supreme in India. Then the English and French began a fierce war, each supporting the cause of a rival prince. The victories of Clive, 1750-1752, ruined the French power in India.

At this period the great and rich provinces of Bengal, Bahar and Orissa were governed by a nabob whose ancestors, like other viceroys, had become independent of the Mogul. This prince, Surajah-Dowlah by name, a youth under 20 years of age, conceived a violent hatred of the English, and marched against Fort William, A.D. 1756. Most of the English, unable to defend themselves, were taken prisoners, and the horrible affair of the "Black Hole of Calcutta" took place. The battle of Plassey was the consequence (1757), in which the Nabob was totally defeated. The English from that time became the actual rulers of the districts of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa, though a new Nabob was appointed; and they were formally given over by the Mogul Emperor in 1765. In 1760 the districts of Burdwan, Midnapore and Chittagong were ceded to the English in payment for the services of the army. In 1766 the province of the Northern Circars was given up by the Nizam, having been granted also to the English the preceding year by the Mogul; Guntoor, the most southern division of the province was not annexed, however, till 1788. The history of India thenceforward is little more than that of a succession of conquests and annexations, which have resulted in giving us actual possession of more than three-fourths of the whole country, and virtual power over the rest. Only the barest chronological table, illustrating the gradual extension of our Empire, must suffice.

Warren Hastings, the first Governor-General, 1772-1785.—Benares and the surrounding district annexed (1775), having been ceded by the Vizier of Oude, in return for services rendered to his father Sujah Dowlah, in the Rohilla war. The island of Salsette, close to Bombay, was taken from the Mahrattas, the same year. In 1784 the Board of Control was formed by Mr. Pitt as a check on the East India Company.

In 1786 the island of Penang, and in 1802 a footing on the Malay Peninsula opposite to it (subsequently called Wellesley Province (see p. 57) were added by purchase from the sovereign of the region.

Lord Cornwallis, 1786-1793.—War with *Tippoo*, Sultan of Mysore. This prince invaded Travancore, a state under British protection, and was compelled to purchase peace by the cession of half his

Digitized by Google

kingdom. The districts of Malabar, Dindigul, and Salem, thus became British (1792).

MARQUIS WELLESLEY, 1798-1805.—Final defeat of Tippoo. This prince now associated himself with the French, and took up arms for the third time (1798) against the English. The war ended in the storming of Seringapatam, the death of Tippoo, and the partition of his dominions. Canara, Coimbatore, &c., fell to our share. A large piece of territory (lying to the north of what is now the kingdom of Mysore) which was given to our ally the Nizam, was ceded by him to us in 1800. This territory was subsequently known as the Ceded Districts. In 1799 Tanjore was ceded by its Rajah in consideration of an annual pension, and in 1801 the whole of the Carnatic became ours on similar conditions. Towards the end of the same year the Vizier of Oude, proving unable from bad government to support troops necessary for the defence of his country, a treaty was agreed on to commute his annual subsidy by a cession of territory, and thus the Lower Doab, Bareily, Allahabad, Goruckpore, Jounpoor, and other districts on the Gogra, became British territory. The celebrated defeat of the confederate Mahratta chieftains at Assaye, by WELLINGTON (1802), and their not less signal defeat by LAKE, near Delhi, was followed by the addition of Cuttack; the fortresses of Ahmednuggur and Broach, with their dependent territory; the whole of the Upper Doab, including the cities of Agra and Delhi; portions of Guzerat; and other districts. By these victories Lord Wellesley doubled the extent and value of our possessions in the East, and asserted for England that commanding position which alone could render her secure in the midst of the native powers.

MARQUIS HASTINGS, 1813-1823.—The Ghoorkas of Nepal, having made numerous incursions across the borders into territories under British protection, satisfaction was demanded. This was refused. A war was the result, which ended in the complete defeat of the Ghoorkas and the cession of the province of Kumaon and other territories 1816. In 1817 the Peishwa went to war with the English and was defeated. His power having been entirely broken, the whole of his dominions were formally taken possession of, and annexed. By this war was added the Saugor Territory, Dharwar, Poonah, North Concan, Candeish, and Ahmedabad from the Peishwar; the Nerbudda Territory, ceded by the Rajah of Berar; and Ajmere, given up by Scindiah.

EARL AMHERST, 1823-1828.—Singapore purchased. Malacca ceded by the Dutch in exchange for possessions in Sumatra. Assam, Arracan, and the Tenasserim Provinces obtained, at the end of the Burmese war.

LORD AUCKLAND, 1835-1842.—Period of the Afghan war, so disastrous to our troops.

LORD ELLENBOROUGH, 1842-1844.—This period was distinguished by the annexation of the large province of Sinde.

Digitized by Google

LORD HARDINGE, 1844-1847.—Period of the first celebrated Sikh war of the Punjab. Battles of Ferozeshah, Aliwal, and Sobraon, and annexation of the Jullundur Doab.

LORD DALHOUSIE, 1847-1856.—Second great war of the Punjab. Siege and capture of Mooltan. Battles of Chillianwallah and Gujerat, in the Punjab, and consequent annexation of the Punjab (1849). War with Burmah, and annexation of Pegu (1852). Nagpore, a large province in the Deccan, lapsed to the English (1854). Oude annexed (1856).

LORD CANNING, 1856-61.—Commencement of the celebrated Sepoy revolt (May 8, 1857). Massacre at Cawnpore (June 26). Capture of Delhi (Sept. 20). Relief of Lucknow; and end of the war (1859).

The Mutiny and Rebellion of 1857-9 formed a crisis in the destinies of the great Dependency of India, and the circumstances which occasioned them caused a thorough change in the relations of the country to Great Britain. In 1858 the actual government was transferred from the East India Company to the Crown, and as an immediate result an amalgamation took place between the army of the Company and the British army. Since the suppression of the mutiny the princes and chief landowners have been conciliated by allowing them certain privileges. The police has been reorganised; the administration of justice improved; and a new system of legislatures, local as well as central, established: natives, too, have been admitted, with the happiest results, to share in making the laws under which they live. A vast impetus has been given to the public works, most of which are now approaching completion, and it is to be hoped, will soon yield those beneficial and prosperous results which have been so long and patiently expected. Enormous progress has been made since the mutiny, and is going on at an increasing rate. Wages have vastly increased, and in many parts of India have nearly doubled. The people everywhere are better fed and better clothed, and are getting out of debt to their native usurers. Roads and watercourses that have been long neglected also show signs of great and rapid improvement. The causes of this prosperity are various. The Russian war gave the first great stimulus to Indian prosperity, by causing a great demand for Indian exports. Not long after that, a very large outlay took place during the mutiny upon public works and armies; probably not less than 100,000,000*l*. of English capital has been spent in India during the last ten years. There has been also an increasing trade with China, owing to the great demand for opium and its high price. Everywhere there has been a general advance of prosperity, of which the labouring classes have had the lion's share. There is another and special cause of this increase of natural wealth. Until very lately, no such thing as landed property existed in India, because, excepting in a few districts such as Bengal, where there was a permanent settlement, all the land was rack-rented, and in the state that the West of Ireland was before the

Digitized by Google

famine. All this has now been changed. The rise of prices has almost doubled the value of the produce of the land. The cultivation, too, of articles of European demand has been enormously extended, especially in the articles of cotton and tea. There is no apparent limit to the prosperity of India, nor any reason, if things go on well for the next fifteen or twenty years, why our trade with India alone should not be as large as our trade is now with the whole world. India could easily supply at least half the tea and coffee that are consumed in Europe, with a large portion of cotton, linseed-oil, jute, hemp, and other valuable produce to an almost unlimited extent.

The reforms commenced under Lord Canning were faithfully continued by the EARL OF ELGIN, who succeeded to the government of India in 1861; and will doubtless be carried out under the distinguished SIR JOHN LAWRENCE, who became Viceroy at the close of 1863, on the lamented death of the Earl of Elgin.

Digitized by Google

BRITISH COLONIES

IN

AFRICA.

SECTION 1.—SOUTH AFRICA.

THE British territory in South Africa comprises the three districts known as—

(a) THE CAPE COLONY;
(b) NATAL;
(c) BRITISH KAFFRARIA.

(a) THE CAPE COLONY.

[Name derived from the Cape of Good Hope.]

Population, 264,000. *Area*, about 217,000 square miles.

Situation, Extent, and Boundaries.—This region comprises the south-western end of the continent of Africa. Its boundaries were fixed in the year 1848, when it was determined that the Colony should extend to the *Orange River* on the north; to the *Keiskam'ma*, and to a line joining it with the *Nu Gariep'* on the east; and to the ocean on the south and west.

The Colony is rather more than three times as large as the island of Great Britain. Its length is about as great as the distance from Duncansby Head to the North Foreland.

The length of this territory from west to east is about 600 miles, and its breadth, from north to south about 450 miles.

Coast-line.—Southern Africa does not end in a point. It presents to the ocean a broad line of coast running east and west, indented by several bays, and forming several promontories, of which the Cape of Good Hope is the most westward. The most southern point of the Colony and of Africa is *Cape Agulhas*.

Bays are very numerous. The chief are—*St. Helena Bay*,

Digitized by Google

Saldan'ha Bay, and *Table Bay*, on the west; and *False Bay* (of which Simon Bay forms part), *Mos'sel Bay*, and *Algo'a Bay*, on the south.

The *Cape of Good Hope*, from which the Colony gets its name, is the southern end of a narrow peninsula, 30 miles long, formed by False Bay on the east, Table Bay on the north, and the ocean on the west.

Table Bay, the most frequented of any harbour on the coast, is safe during only a small portion of the year. It opens towards the north, on which side it is exposed to most violent local winds which are accompanied by a very heavy swell, extremely dangerous to shipping. As the bay contains no sheltered quays, vessels are loaded and unloaded by means of lighters. Before long a breakwater, similar to our own at Portland, will be constructed, so that Table Bay will become a Harbour of Refuge.

Simon Bay forms a secure and sheltered harbour all the year round. Algoa Bay is not unsafe, if proper care be taken with vessels, but it is very much exposed. Saldanha Bay is the only one besides Simon Bay which possesses complete shelter.

General Features—Mountains.—The great central feature in the structure of the Colony is a chain of high mountains running almost through it from west to east, parallel to the south coast, and at a distance from it of about 140 miles.

The western portion of this central chain is known as the *Nieuw-veld* * (*i. e.* New Forest) Range, and the eastern portion as the *Sneeuw-Bergen* † (*i. e.* Snowy Mountains), and *Winter-Bergen* (*i. e.* Winter Mountains). At its western end it turns northward, running parallel to the western coast under the name *Rog'geveld* Mountains. This chain, the loftiest of any in the colony, with an average height of 7000 feet, notwithstanding its name, is nowhere covered with perpetual snow. The highest summit, called *Compass* Mountain, is about 9000 feet in height.

About 40 miles north of the Winter Mountains is an almost equally high range called the *Stormy* Mountains, which turning northward runs parallel to the eastern coast, under the name *Dra'ken-Bergen* (*i. e.* Dragon Mountains), or *Quathlam'ba* Chain.

In the little peninsula which ends in the Cape of Good Hope is an isolated mountain-group, the highest part of which is called *Table* Mountain. It is a flat-topped summit, 3580

* Pronounced *New'-veld.* This name, like most of those belonging to the physical features of the colony, is Dutch.

† Pronounced *Snew'-bergen.*

Digitized by Google

feet high. As a rule the coast-side of all the South African mountain-ranges is always the best wooded.

Plains and Karroos.—North of this central range the country forms broad, open, arid plains, sloping towards the Orange River; south of the range it forms a succession of terraces leading, step by step, down to the ocean, and separated from each other by mountain-chains of less elevation.

The first of these smaller chains, which lies about 100 miles south of the central range, and has a mean height of 5000 feet, is called *Zwar'te-Bergen* (*i. e.* Black Mountains). Its western end turns northward, forming the *Bok'keveld* Mountains, which run parallel to the Rog'geveld range. South of this is another chain, 200 miles in length, known by various names in different parts, but generally called the *Swel'lendam* Range in the west, and the *Outen'iqua* Range further east. The chain is at a distance from the coast varying from 50 to 10 miles, and has an average height of 4000 feet.

Between the south coast and the range nearest the sea is a narrow fertile plain, not much above the sea-level, watered by numerous streams, and well clothed with grass and a variety of trees and shrubs. Rains are frequent in this portion of the Colony, which, from its nearness to the sea, has a milder and more even temperature than the district further inland.

North of the sea-range is the first terrace, a region from 15 to 30 miles wide, considerably elevated, and containing some well-watered and fertile land, together with large tracts of arid desert called *Karroo'*.* Between the Black Mountains and the Nieuwveld range is a vast terrace, called the *Great Karroo'*, 400 miles long, and from 50 to 70 broad, having an elevation of 3000 feet.

The first terrace is known by several names in different parts. North of the Swel'lendam Mountains it is called *Kan'naland*; further east it is called *Long Kloof*.*

The Great Karroo is a bleak, dry desert, about as large as Ireland, utterly bare and barren except after heavy rains, when it produces rich grass. Indeed, the Karroos in general may be described as arid deserts in the dry season. Soon after the setting in of the rainy season,

---

* "Karroo" is a Hottentot word, meaning *arid* or *dry*.

† A "Kloof" is a district between two mountain-chains, or a pass through a mountain-range. The word is Dutch.

Digitized by Google

however, they are covered with vegetation and a splendid flora. The maritime plain partakes of the same temporary aridity, though a large portion is rich in cereal productions, vineyards, fruits, and pastures. The country north of the Nieuwveld range is little known, but is believed to be more elevated than the Great Karroo, and, in parts, almost equally barren. Its north-western part, called Bushmanland, though on the whole a sterile and desert tract, inhabited by a few wandering tribes of Bushmen and others, is covered at certain seasons of the year with fine grass, and with care might be made habitable.

The deserts of South Africa—unlike those of North Africa—are not sandy wastes, shifting their surface with every gust of wind; but are generally composed of shallow beds of rich soil, which only want permanent water to render them very rich and productive.

Rivers.—To judge from a map of the Cape Colony one would suppose that it is well supplied with water, but this is far from being the case. There appear to be numerous rivers, some, hundreds of miles in length, running in all directions, and receiving in their course numerous tributaries; but for the most part they are mere shallow mountain-torrents, scarcely flowing except just after rains, when they become swollen into impetuous streams of great width and depth, extremely swift, and often dangerous.

Owing to the very rapid fall in these rivers, no sooner does the rain cease than they either disappear altogether, or sink down into deep chasms, from 50 to 200 feet below the level of the surface, flowing over a rocky bottom between steep and almost precipitous banks, so that they are perfectly useless either for irrigation or navigation. Floods occur very suddenly in them. It is not uncommon for the dry bed of a stream to be filled, within twenty-four hours, with a raging torrent several hundred feet wide, and perhaps 20 or 30 feet deep. On one occasion a leopard and an antelope which had come down to different standing pools of the channel of one of the tributaries of the Orange River to drink, were in succession suddenly caught up by such a flood, and carried away until entangled in a tree, where both could be seen, terror-stricken, gazing at each other.

The waters of many South African rivers, especially when low, are brackish, *i. e.* they contain salt, which they derive from the soil over which they flow. The salt-pans, so common in the northern part of the Colony, are the dry beds of shallow lakes which are covered with a thin coating of salt.

The largest river of South Africa is the *Gariep* or *Orange River*, which forms the northern boundary of the Colony. The other long rivers of the Colony are:—on the west coast, *Olifant's River;* and on the south coast, the *Gau'ritz.* To these may be added, the *Breede*, draining the southern slope

Digitized by Google

of the Swellendam Mountains; the *Gam'toos;* the *Sunday River;* the *Great Fish River*, and the *Keiskam'ma;* all on the south coast.

The Orange River received its name from the Dutch; not (as might be supposed) in reference to the colour of its waters, but in honour of the house of Orange. It rises in the Drakenberg range, and after first skirting the chain southwards for some distance runs to the north-west, and finally to the west. In its upper course it is frequently known as the *Nu* (*i. e.* black) *Gariep*. Its chief tributaries are the *Ky* (*i. e.* yellow) *Gariep* or *Vaal* River, the *Aintas*, and the *Great Fish River* on the right bank, none of which are in the Colony; and the *Har'tebeest* on the left bank. The total length of the stream is above 1000 miles; and the area of its basis probably above 350,000 square miles, *i. e.* half as large again as the area of France. Yet notwithstanding this immense size, it does not possess sufficient depth of water to be navigable; besides which its entrance is hopelessly barred with shifting sandbanks.

The Aintas, Hartebeest, and Great Fish River are for most of the year mere dry channels, with here and there standing pools in their beds. A little above the confluence of the Aintas is a magnificent waterfall, the whole river being suddenly precipitated about 30 yards into a deep chasm 80 feet wide.

The greater number of South African rivers are periodical, *i. e.* they flow only after heavy rains. The Breede and Olifant River are permanent, but the Breede is almost the only one that is navigable. The Gamtoos, Gauritz, and all the other rivers draining the Karroo, are subject to very sudden risings, although generally they are but dry channels.

Character of the Country.—The first distinguishing feature of the Colony which strikes an Englishman is the want of trees and water. Owing to this want, the country has a wild, barren, and uninviting aspect. The abundance and brilliancy of the flowers, however, produce a striking effect in the landscape. There are many kinds peculiar to the Colony intermixed with others of a kind well known in England.

Two flowering plants, peculiar to the Colony, and most abundant, are the *aloe*, with its brilliant crimson flower, and the *protea*, or sugar-plant, with its white, pink, and black flower.

The neighbourhood of Cape Town is pretty and fertile, and so is some of the country east of the Fish River; but the most prevalent scenery is that marked by rocky and arid mountains, naked plains, stony valleys, and an absence of shade, of verdure, and water. The want of trees is in a fair way of being supplied by the very active steps which are taken to surround every homestead with the blue gum-tree; the growth of which is so rapid, that in a few years the general aspect

Digitized by Google

of the country will most probably be quite altered, and an important change produced thereby in the climate of the Colony.

Climate.—The climate is pleasant and healthy, and is well suited to Europeans, the atmosphere being pure, and the heat temperate. Its chief drawback is the irregularity of the rains, which sometimes fall in torrents, so as to endanger property; and at others are absent for long periods together, so as seriously to hinder the progress of agriculture.

The mean annual temperature of the Colony * is higher than that of England, as might be expected from the latitude; and the variations between summer and winter are not so great. Frost and snow are almost unknown, except in the very high portions of the country.

There is a marked difference in the climates of the eastern and western portions of the colony. The western provinces have wet and cold winters, and pleasant dry summers; the eastern have cold, dry, and bracing winters, and wet and stormy summers. In some of the tracts bordering on the Great Karroo there is no rain perhaps for two or three years together; but such a drought never happens near the coast.

It is owing to the temperate and even climate that the colony is so suitable for the production of wool and wine, and for the breeding of sheep, cattle, and horses. As the country is in the southern hemisphere, its seasons are the reverse of ours. The coldest months are July and August; the hottest, January and February.

Careful observation of the climate with regard to temperature, rain, and wind, proves it to be most healthy for Europeans. There are no violent changes from heat to cold, and the few hot days of summer are always tempered with light airs. For ten months in the year no fire is necessary, except for cooking. No such disease as fever is known. This arises from the fact that South Africa is thoroughly exposed to the sea breeze, which carries off noxious vapours.

---

* The following Table shows the temperature of Cape Town as compared with that of London:—

Place.	Mean temperature of			Rainfall in inches.
	Hottest month.	Coldest month.	Year.	
London	62°	37°	49°	30
Cape Town	69°	51°	62°	23½

The Colony is subject now and then to hot winds from the north and east, which are described as being not unlike the samoom. Not only are they stiflingly hot, but they carry with them minute particles of reddish sand, too small to be felt, which penetrate everywhere. The whole atmosphere is dimmed, and the trees look as if they were painted with red ochre. Soon afterwards, however, the breeze cools, and the air regains its wonted clearness. The hot wind, though disagreeable, is not regarded as injurious to health.

Supply of Water to Cape Town.—The supply of water to Cape Town is so curious that it is worthy of mention. The town is situated on Table Bay, just north of Table Mountain, which is the end of a high ridge almost covering the Cape of Good Hope promontory. The face of the mountain on the north-west is almost perpendicular, and about 4000 feet in height. When a cold south-east wind blows over the ridge, and comes to the edge of the cliff, it meets the warm moist air constantly rising from Table Bay, and immediately condenses it first into cloud and then into rain, which falls on the mountain edge and on the broken rocks at its foot. This cloud, which may be almost always seen over the mountain, is called the *Table-cloth*. It is constantly depositing the purest water at the mountain's foot, and forms the only source from which is obtained all the water for the supply of the 30,000 people living below it, as well as the ships which visit Cape Town. If the cloud is dense, so as to entirely cover the mountain-top, it generally marks a coming storm; hence when bad weather is expected it is usual to say "The table-cloth is spread."

Productions.

(*a*) **Mineral.**—The Colony is not rich in minerals. Mining has hardly yet been commenced. Copper and a very little lead are the chief metals hitherto obtained.

The wealth of the Colony is to be found in its climate, soil, and vegetable and animal productions, not in its minerals. Almost the only district where copper is at all plentiful is in the extreme north-west corner, near the mouth of the Orange River, and known as *Little Namaqua Land*; but it is so inhospitable that the mines are worked with difficulty. The quantity of copper ore shipped from thence to England is about 4000 tons annually.

(*b*) **Vegetable.**—The native plants of the Cape Colony have in nearly every instance a peculiar and distinctive character. As has been already stated, trees are scarce, though flowers are most abundant and brilliant. The enormous number of

Digitized by Google

species in so small a district is remarkable. Some of the colonial timber is particularly suited, on account of its durability, for railway sleepers, and is exported to India for that purpose.

The characteristic vegetation south of the Great Karroo consists in varieties of *heath*, *protea*, and *aloe*. The dry sand of the west coast and the country northward is the native country of *stapelias* or *carrion-flowers*, plants with leafless stems like the cactus, with flowers resembling a star-fish. Flies lay eggs upon the flowers in great numbers, taking them for putrid meat.

A portion of the country is covered with thickets of a strong, thorny vegetation, called by natives the *bush*. The most common plants of the bush are *aloes*, all exceedingly fleshy, and some beautiful. The drug called *aloes* is merely the thickened juice of the leaves of such plants. It is extensively used in medicine, and is imported largely from the Cape Colony, which now exports of this article upwards of 300,000 lbs. annually.

Of plants that have been introduced, particularly such as wheat, maize, oats, barley, the vine, and various European and West Indian fruits, such as *oranges*, peaches, apricots, mulberries, and figs, the growth is now very general.

Formerly American flour was largely imported. Now more than sufficient corn for the wants of the Colony is grown, and there is a large exportation of flour, bran, barley, beans, oats, &c., to the Mauritius and other places. The annual export of wine is now about 800,000 gallons. The small vineyard of Constantia, situated about 8 miles west of Cape Town, has become celebrated for the rich wine, both red and white, which it produces.

The introduction of timber-trees has met with considerable success. The ash, elm, and sycamore have made rapid growth, and the Indian cedar stands the climate well. The mahogany and banyan trees thrive also.

(*c*) **Animal.**—The animals indigenous to the Colony are almost endlessly varied, from the most unwieldy bulks to the most graceful forms. Many of them are fast disappearing, owing to the spread of civilization. The *elephant*, *rhinoceros*, *hippopotamus*, *lion*, *leopard* (frequently called a tiger), *panther*, *cheetah* (called the hunting leopard in India), *hyæna*, *jackal*, *wolf*, *quagga*, *zebra*, *buffalo*, *antelope*, *ant-eater*, and a multitude of other wild animals, are met with in the unsettled portions of the colony. They have, however, nearly disappeared in the settled districts, the use of strychnine having contributed much to their destruction. No sooner is a leopard, wolf, or other destructive animal seen than a bait is laid for him, and his dead body is shortly afterwards found.

Digitized by Google

The most abundant animals in South Africa are Antelopes, the number of species of which is very great. The family is divided into two great divisions: *Antelopes of the Field*, and *Antelopes of the Desert*. The former are distinguished by having the nostrils free from hairs, while the latter have them covered with bristles.

Antelopes of the Field are subdivided into three groups: (1) *True Antelopes*, such as the *Spring-Buck*, *Stone-Buck*, *Ourebi*, *Oryx*, or *Gems-boc*, and many others of South Africa; (2) *Goat-like Antelopes*; and (3) *Stag-like Antelopes*, which are not abundant here. *Antelopes of the Desert* are distinguished as *Horse-like*, such as the *Gnu*; and *Ox-like*, such as the *Eland*, *Harte-beest*, *Koodoo*, and numerous others.

The *Spring-Buck* (or Spring-boc) is one of the most beautiful and graceful animals in nature. It is called spring-boc because in running it leaps to the height of 6 or 7 feet. It is about as large as a goat, and lives in innumerable flocks on the Karroos, flying over the desert with the speed of a whirlwind, seldom approaching inhabited districts unless compelled by drought to search for food and water. On such occasions they migrate in flocks of from 10,000 to 50,000, devouring every vegetable substance they meet with.

The *Stone-Buck* (or Stein-boc), a small antelope about 19 inches high at the shoulders, lives in pairs on the dry open stony plains. It is remarkably timid, and runs with incredible swiftness. When pursued, it will frequently jump 12 or 15 feet at a single leap. When closely pressed, and without means of escape, it will hide its head in the first hole or corner it happens to meet with, and so resign itself to its fate. It is much hunted, on account of its delicate flesh, which furnishes excellent venison.

The *Ourebi* or *Pale Buck* is rather larger than the former, being about 21 inches high at the shoulder. Its flesh forms excellent venison, and is very much esteemed. It does not live in flocks like the Spring-boc.

The *Eland* or *Cape Elk* is as large as an ox, being 5 feet high at the shoulder. Its flesh is more prized than that of any other wild animal of South Africa. It lives in large herds, and is very gentle. This animal has recently been introduced into some English parks, where it seems likely to thrive very well.

The *Gnu* is a very wild species, about the size of an ass, and with the neck, body, and tail of a horse. It lives in extensive herds on the Karroos, and is dangerous to approach. When wounded it will frequently turn on the hunter.

The *Harte-Beest* is the most common of all the large antelopes. It lives in large herds, and is the favourite object of pursuit among the natives and colonists. The *Koodoo* is one of the largest of antelopes, being more than 4 feet high at the shoulder. Its horns are particularly fine, being 4 feet long, and beautifully twisted. It lives in Kaffraria.

Digitized by Google

There is plenty of game in the Colony,—deer, hares, pheasants, and partridges being alike common.

Reptiles.—During warm weather snakes abound, and are a great annoyance throughout the Colony. One, known as the "*mamba*," is very vicious, and will chase a person for a mile. The *cobra-de-capello*, the *puff-adder*, the *mountain-adder*, and the *tree-snake*, are all very venomous.

The "mamba" or chasing snake is a most vicious creature, 16 or 18 feet in length. It will follow a person a mile, and he must ride fast to escape from it. It has the power of erecting itself on its tail, when in pursuit of its object; then, throwing itself down and rushing on twenty yards or so, it rears up again; and so on, till it comes to some bush or tree, round which it throws its strong tail, and then strikes right and left at its enemies.

Birds.—The birds of the Colony are nearly all peculiar to the region. The most worthy of notice are the *secretary-bird*, the *honey-guide*, the *weaver-bird*, and the *ostrich*.

The *secretary-bird* is about as large as a turkey, has a strongly hooked bill, and long slender legs. It is so called from a tuft of plumes on the back of its head, which has somewhat the appearance of a quill stuck behind a person's ear. It is also called the *serpent-eater*, because it feeds chiefly upon serpents and other reptiles, which it kills with a great spur that it has on its wings. It is so useful that the Colonists and Hottentots do not kill it. In like manner the Dutch do not kill the stork, and the ancient Egyptians used never to injure the ibis. Secretary-birds are very voracious. One was killed not long ago which had in its crop eleven lizards, three serpents, and eleven tortoises, besides a quantity of locusts and other insects.

The *honey-guide*, a sort of cuckoo, is famed for guiding the natives to the nests of the wild bees. It is held in great veneration by the Hottentots, who always leave it a share of the honey when a nest is taken.

The *beef-eater* is always seen in company with herds of buffaloes and antelopes. It lives on larvæ (or maggots) which it squeezes out of the backs of these animals with its pincer-like bill.

The *weaver-bird* is famed for its peculiar nests. It lives in the same way as the beef-eater.

The following lines contain the names, and a sketch of the leading characteristics of the chief animals of South Africa :—

"Afar in the desert I love to ride,
With the silent bush-boy alone by my side:

Digitized by Google

Away—away from the dwellings of men,
By the antelope's haunt and the buffalo's glen;
By valleys remote where the ourebi plays,
Where the gnu, the gazelle, and the hartebeest graze,
And the koodoo and eland unhunted recline
By the skirts of grey forests o'erhung with wild vine;
Where the elephant browses at peace in his wood,
And the river-horse gambols unscared in the flood,
And the mighty rhinoceros wallows at will
In the pool where the wild ass is drinking his fill.
Afar in the desert I love to ride,
With the silent bush-boy alone by my side:
O'er the brown karroo, where the bleating cry
Of the spring-boc's fawn sounds plaintively;
And the timorous quagga's shrill whistling neigh
Is heard by the fountain at twilight grey;
Where the zebra wantonly tosses his mane
As he scours with his troop o'er the desolate plain;
And the fleet-footed ostrich over the waste
Speeds like a horseman who travels in haste,
Hieing away to the home of her rest,
Where she and her mate have scooped their nest,
Far hid from the pitiless plunderer's view,
In the pathless depths of the parched karroo."

Introduced Animals.—The breeding of sheep, cattle, and horses furnishes the greatest sources of wealth to the Colony. The climate is most admirably suited to the rearing of sheep. The horse of the Colony is small, but very enduring of fatigue. Large numbers of them are sent to India to supply the cavalry there. A considerable number of the best horses in one of our cavalry regiments which were sent to the Crimea from India had been exported from the Cape eleven years before.

South Africa forms one of our three chief sources of supply for wool. Our imports of South African wool have increased from 9620 lb. in 1816, to 7,700,000 lb. in 1853, and to about 20,000,000 lb. at the present time.

The increase in the number of cattle and sheep may be inferred from the number of hides and skins exported, the number of hides in 1853 being 5300, and in 1856 96,200; and of sheep and goat skins 168,700 in 1854, and 1,420,000 in 1858.

Exports.—The most important production of the Colony, in a commercial point of view, will be best shown by the following Table of Exports during one year:—

Digitized by Google

Articles.		Quantity.	Value.
			£.
Wool	lb.	19,490,000	1,200,000
Wine	galls.	1,099,000	180,000
Horses	No.	3,530	117,700
Copper ore	tons	3,900	113,000
Sheep-skins	No.	967,000	82,000
Goat-skins	No.	452,300	59,300
Hides	No.	72,000	61,400
Fruit	lb.	1,790,000	33,000
Fish, dried	lb.	1,805,000	10,300
Flour	lb.	791,000	10,300
Aloes	cwts.	6,000	9,000
Other articles, including oats, barley, beans, peas, horn, ivory, ostrich-feathers, &c.		..	82,000
			1,958,000

Political Divisions.—The Colony is divided into two great Provinces, the Eastern and Western; and these are each at present subdivided into eleven districts of unequal size.

The line of division between the two provinces is near the meridian of 23½° west long. In the Western Province the most important districts are *Cape*, *Stellenbosch*, *Paarl*, *Malmesbury*, *Caledon*, *Swellendam*, *Worcester*, *George*, and *Beaufort*. In the Eastern Province the most important are *Albany*, *Uitenhage*, *Somerset*, *Victoria*, and *Fort Beaufort*. The districts are constantly changing as the Colony advances in population.

Towns.—The chief town of the Western Province is CAPE TOWN, which is also the capital of the colony. Population, 30,000. It is the see of a bishop. The other most important places of the Western Province are *Simon Town*, on the shore of Simon Bay, which contains the government arsenal; *Swellendam*, *Stellenbosch*, *Paarl*, and *George Town*.

The chief town of the Eastern Province is *Graham's Town*, in the district of Albany, a place of considerable trade, and almost entirely English. Population, 7000. It is the see of a bishop. The other most important towns in the Eastern Province are *Port Elizabeth*, on Algoa Bay, the principal port of the province, and a place of increasing commercial importance; *Graaf Reynet* (3000), a pretty Dutch town on the

Digitized by Google

Sunday River, at the foot of the Snowy Mountains; *Bathurst*, *Uitenhage*.

Cape Town is a well-built place, with streets and squares regularly laid out, and stands on the shore of Table Bay, 31 miles north of the celebrated cape from which it takes its name. The streets cross one another at right angles. The chief ones are lined with rows of either oak, poplar, or pine trees, and are lighted with gas. The shops are well supplied with European goods. Most of the houses are flat-roofed. There are capital government offices, and an observatory, where a ball is dropped daily, as at Greenwich, to indicate true time to mariners. The anchorage in the bay is good, but it is not always safe (see p. 72).

Population.—The Cape Colony is inhabited by a very mixed population, consisting of *English*, *Dutch*, *Germans*, *Malays*, together with the native *Hottentots*, *Bushmen*, *Kaffirs*, and *Fingoes*. The Dutch are descendants of the original European settlers of the colony. They are usually farmers, and are called *Boers*. The English and Germans are for the most part either merchants, farmers, or artisans. From the Dutch tenure of the colony have originated the many Dutch names of the rivers, mountains, animals, and plants, still in use.

The *Hottentots* are the real aborigines of the Colony. As a race they are short, have slight limbs, prominent cheek-bones, and a skin more brown than black. Their hair does not cover the whole of their head, but grows in tufts, so that, when cut, it is not very much unlike a hard shoebrush. They make capital shepherds and herdsmen, and are employed in all descriptions of labour, being faithful and honest. They belong more to the western than to the eastern side of the Colony. There are various tribes of Hottentots, *e.g.* Namaquas, Korannas, &c.

The *Bushmen* probably belong also, judging from their language, to the Hottentot race, but this is not quite certain. They inhabit the most sterile part of the Colony; are a poor, miserable, half-starved people; are hunters rather than shepherds; and live in deadly enmity with the Korannas. Some are now found on farms in different occupations, but they are not to be relied on, as they are fond of savage life, and prefer to live rather by theft than by industry.

The *Kaffirs* do not strictly belong to the Colony, but have been imported into it either as prisoners or as emigrants. They are a tall and handsome race, of Negro origin, but with a probable intermixture of Arab blood. Like the Hottentots they are divided into numerous tribes. They seem quite unused to any occupation common in either domestic or farming life, but are all born warriors. Their hair is tufted like the Hottentot's, while their lips are thick like the Negro's.

The *Fingoes* were originally a Kaffir tribe held in subjection by other Kaffirs, from whom they were liberated by us. They are a fine

Digitized by Google

race of hardy men, who perform all the laborious work of the Eastern Province. In the neighbourhood of the towns there are separate districts for Hottentots and Fingoes, apart from the white population.

The *Malays* are labourers who have been introduced from the islands of the Indian Archipelago. They are Mahometans by religion, live chiefly in towns, and have several mosques. The women are extremely fond of finery, and wear the richest silks and satins that can be procured. The men are clever fishermen, and handy at all sorts of labour, but they will not work more than two days a week.

Government.—From the year 1806 (when the colony was ceded to the English nation by the Dutch) until the year 1852 the government was carried on entirely by a governor and a few officers appointed by the sovereign of Great Britain, who were not responsible to the Colony. In 1852 the application for a representative system, like that of our House of Commons, was approved by the home government, and a regular constitution was given to the Colony.

There is now a Governor, a Legislative Council, and a House of Assembly. The *Governor* is appointed by the Crown. The *Legislative Council* consists of 15 members, elected by the Colonists for ten years. The *House of Assembly* consists of 46 members, who represent the chief towns and country districts of the Colony. They are elected for five years.

Education and Religion. — Schools of various descriptions are numerous throughout the Colony, and are aided by the local legislatures. The English Church has two bishops in the Colony, those, namely, of Cape Town and Graham's Town. A considerable portion of the people belong to the Dutch Reformed Church, and there are besides various bodies of Dissenters. There are numerous Missionary Institutions and Missionaries for the benefit of the natives.

History.—The Cape of Good Hope, originally known as the Cape of Storms, was discovered by Bartholomew Diaz, a Portuguese navigator, in 1493. On the little peninsula of which it forms the southern point the Dutch made a settlement about the year 1650; but some crossed the isthmus into the Hottentot territory beyond. They gradually subdued the poor inoffensive natives, and either drove them away or made slaves of them. By the year 1750 they had thus taken possession of the whole territory south of the Nieuwveld Mountains, which then formed the northern boundary of the Colony.

In 1795 the English captured it, but restored it at the peace of Amiens, 1801. They again seized it in 1806, and its possession was confirmed to them at the general peace in 1815. The Colony was

Digitized by Google

subsequently extended towards the Orange River by settlers who went northwards. Its present boundaries were fixed in 1848.

The principal historical events since 1806 are the numerous Kaffir wars, particularly those of 1819, 1835-6, 1846-7, and 1851-2; the introduction of British settlers, 1820; the emigration of Dutch Boers, 1837-9; the extension of the boundary to the Orange River and the Keiskamma in 1848; the granting of a regular constitution, 1853; the Kaffir famine and dispersion of the race, 1856-7; the introduction of railways, 1859; and the foundation of Table Bay Breakwater by Prince Alfred in 1860.

(*b*) NATAL.

[Named by the Portuguese from having been discovered by them on Christmas Day, 1498.

Population, about 153,000. *Area*, 20,000 square miles.

Situation and General Features.—The Colony of Natal lies north-east of the Cape Colony, from which it is separated by Kaffraria, a native territory. The country rises gradually from the ocean to the mountain-chain on its western side in a succession of four terraces, each having an average width of 20 miles, with its own peculiarity of soil and climate. It is fertile and well watered, contrasting favourably in this respect with the Cape Colony. Its rivers are very numerous, and one of them, the Tugela, upwards of 200 miles long; but none are navigable.

It has a coast-line of about 150 miles, and stretches inland from 80 to 100 miles, as far as the *Quathlamba* Chain, the northern continuation of the Sneeuw-bergen, which divides it from the Orange Free State and Basutu Land. The area is about one-third that of England and Wales.

Along the lower terrace, which is washed by the Indian Ocean, the heat is greatest, and is sufficient for the growth of most tropical produce. The sea-belt for the distance of eight or ten miles inland is peculiarly adapted for the growth of sea-island cotton, the most valuable of all kinds of cotton. The second terrace, which is almost bare of trees, is well adapted for grazing purposes, and for the growth of maize. The third terrace contains an abundance of superior timber. The fourth terrace is well adapted for growing wheat and other European produce.

Climate and Productions.—The climate is described as delightful, and not unlike a perpetual spring. The productions

Digitized by Google

are very varied. All European and several tropical kinds of fruit and grain flourish luxuriantly. Animal life is quite as abundant as in the Cape Colony, and there is an endless variety of birds of most beautiful plumage. Sheep-farming is rapidly extending.

The cultivation of cotton, sugar, coffee, indigo, and arrow-root promises to be most successful. The chief exports at present are horses, arrow-root, butter, hides, ivory, sugar, and wool.

Report speaks favourably of the mineral wealth of Natal, though no mines have as yet been worked. A seam of coal has been discovered, which may prove of enormous value not only for manufacturing purposes in the Colony, but also for exportation, when it is recollected that Great Britain sends nearly one million tons of coals annually east of the Cape of Good Hope.

Population.—The population is estimated at about 153,000, of whom 7000 are English, 10,000 Dutch and Germans, and the rest natives. The natives are known as Kaffirs, of the Zulu * tribe, or Zulu Kaffirs. They are as much famed for honesty as the Kaffirs on the border of Cape Colony are for their cattle-stealing propensities.

Towns.—The chief towns are—*Pieter-Maritzburg*, the capital, situated on the second terrace, about 50 miles from the coast; and *D'Urban*, the only port of the colony.

D'Urban, the chief seat of trade, is on the east side of the inlet called *Port Natal*, which is a landlocked bay, affording good anchorage. The port is, however, difficult to enter at times, as its mouth is partly blocked up by a sandbank.

Government.—Natal is under a lieutenant-governor, subject to the governor of the Cape; and has lately received a constitution somewhat similar to that possessed by the Cape Colony. It was created a bishopric in 1853.

History.—The small but very important and rising Colony of Natal owes its origin to some Dutch Boers who emigrated from the Cape Colony in 1836, and obtained this territory from the chief of the Zulu tribes. In the year 1839 they proclaimed themselves an independent republic, and formally renounced their allegiance to Great Britain. The British government, however, refused to acknowledge their independence, and in 1842 compelled them to submit. The Colony was finally established as British in 1845.

* Pronounced Zoo-loo.

Digitized by Google

(c) BRITISH KAFFRARIA.*

Population, about 50,000.

Situation, Towns, &c.—This name is given to a dependency of the Cape Colony, lying between the Keiskamma and Kei rivers, which was annexed at the close of the Kaffir war of 1853, though it had in some measure been under British control since the war of 1835. Its soil and climate are highly praised, and its productions are very varied. The capital is *King William's Town*, on the Buffalo River, at the mouth of which is *East London*, the port of the district.

This was the region from which issued those hordes of marauders who devastated the frontier of the Cape Colony in the various wars between 1806 and 1853. Of the population only about one-sixth are British; the rest are Kaffirs.†

---

* The word Kaffir, from which Kaffraria takes its name, is of Arabic origin, and signifies "*infidel.*" It was originally applied by the Arabs, as it is still, to all the African tribes who did not embrace Mahommedanism.

† For the sake of completeness it may be worth while to mention the other states or territories in the neighbourhood of the British Colonies in South Africa. The chief of these are:—

(1) The independent Boer Republics, comprising—

The Orange Free State, occupying the greater part of the territory between the Nu Gariep and the Ky Gariep; which formed part of the British Empire from 1848 till 1854. It is ruled by an elected President and Council. Capital, BLOEMFONTEIN. The population of the republic is about 18,000, exclusive of wild Bushmen and other wandering tribes.

The Transvaal Republic, north of the Ky Gariep or Vaal River, formed by emigrant farmers when the Free State was annexed to the British territory in 1848. Like the Orange Free State it is ruled by an elected President and Council. The seat of Government is at MOOIRIVERSDORP, a place about 20 miles north of the Vaal River. Population of the republic, exclusive of the wandering tribes, probably about 18,000.

(2) The Regions inhabited by Native tribes, comprising—

Kaffirland, between British Kaffraria and Natal, and also north-east of Natal;

Basutuland, a remarkable and almost inaccessible mountain-region between the Orange Free State, Natal, and Kaffirland, inhabited by a large number of various Bechuana tribes at present under the paramount head Moshesh, a native chief of great energy and force;

Namaqualand, a Hottentot territory, north of the lower portion of the Orange River; and

Griqualand, south-west of the Orange Free State, inhabited by Griquas, who are descendants of Dutch Boers and their Hottentot slaves.

Digitized by Google

SECTION II.—WESTERN AFRICA.

THE British territories in Western Africa may be arranged as follows:—

(*a*) SETTLEMENTS ON THE RIVER GAMBIA;
(*b*) SIERRA LEONE;
(*c*) SETTLEMENTS ON THE GOLD COAST.

(*a*) GAMBIA SETTLEMENTS.

Population, 6700.

Situation.—The Gambia is a river of Western Africa which flows into the Atlantic Ocean in north lat. 14°, after a course of about 600 miles. The English have trading establishments at intervals along both banks for many miles into the interior, which are all included under the name *Gambia Colony*.

The principal of the Gambia Settlements are:—*Bathurst*, on St. Mary's Island at the mouth of the river, the chief station; *Fort James*, on an island 20 miles up the river; and *Fort George*, on MacCarthy's Island, about 200 miles up. The population consists mainly of Negroes, the Europeans numbering less than 200.

They belong to various tribes, but mostly to that known as Mandingo, one of the most civilized of all Negro tribes. Their religion is partly Mohammedanism and partly Paganism, but Christianity is making progress among them.

Climate and Productions.—The climate is most unhealthy for Europeans, fevers being very prevalent, owing to the lowness of the land. The exports of the colony are various. The chief are, *ground-nuts*, teak and other ship-timber, ivory, palm-oil, gum-arabic, and bees-wax.

The exports are valued at nearly 200,000*l*. annually, of which about three-fourths is for the articles known as *ground-nuts*, the fruit of a plant very much like the field-pea, about 15 inches high. They are used as food in the Colony, but are chiefly exported for the sake of the oil they contain, which is pressed out of them, and is used in the manufacture of soap, in the woollen manufacture, in lamps, and for oiling machinery. France is the chief customer for them.

Digitized by Google

The increasing demand for this article has tended more than anything else to encourage settled and industrious habits among the natives, many of whom travel hundreds of miles from the interior to hire a piece of land on which to cultivate the plant. When they have gained a little money, they purchase European goods, with which they return home again to the interior.

History.—Queen Elizabeth granted a patent to English merchants to trade on the Gambia; and in 1591 the first traders from this country settled there. Others landed there in 1618, and again in 1723, under the Royal African Company, since which time a trade has been regularly carried on with England.

(*b*) SIERRA LEONE.

Population, 42,000. *Area*, estimated at 25,000 square miles.

Situation.—This is a district lying on the coast of Africa, a little south of the Gambia, and between latitudes 8° and 10° north. The chief portion of the colony is a small peninsula of the same name, an elevated region for the most part covered with forest, and lying on the south side of what is called the Sierra Leone River. Besides the peninsula and mainland there are numerous islands along the shore included in the Colony; *e. g.*, the *Isles de Los*, the *Banana Islands*, and *Sherboro Island*.

Surface—Rivers.—The surface inland is diversified by hill and valley; the only level tract is a belt on the coast from 1 to 3 miles wide, covered with swamps and mangroves. There are numerous rivers, the largest being from 200 to 300 miles in length; but they are only imperfectly known.

The largest is the *Rokelle*, a stream flowing into the wide estuary known as the River of Sierra Leone, which is seven miles wide opposite Freetown, and which forms the chief harbour of the Colony.

Climate.—There are two seasons, the wet and the dry. The former lasts from May to November, and always begins and ends with hurricanes. The wet season is very unhealthy.

The quantity of rain that falls is about 160 inches, *i. e.* seven times as much as falls in London. Half of this falls in July and August. The heat is intense, and is probably greater than at the Equator. The

Digitized by Google

trade-winds do not blow here, but the land and sea breezes are very regular. The sea-breeze sets in about 10 o'clock, and is cool and pleasant. The land-breeze begins about 9 o'clock at night, and is always unhealthy.

Productions.—The soil is very fertile, producing rice, maize, the yam, sweet potato (or batata), and numerous fruits, such as the orange, cocoa-nut, baobab or monkey-bread, banana, guava, and other tropical kinds. Coffee, sugar, indigo, ginger, and cotton, have been introduced, and grow well. But the most valuable of all the productions for exportation is the oil-palm, which yields the palm-oil of commerce.

§ Palm-oil is made entirely from the covering of the nut, the fruit of the tree. About 50,000 tons are exported annually from Western Africa, of which a large quantity is made in Sierra Leone. The kernels of the nuts, formerly thrown away, are now pressed for oil also, and the residue makes an excellent oil-cake. Palm-oil when imported into England is about the consistence of butter, and of a yellowish colour. It is largely used for the manufacture of candles, for lubricating the wheels of railway carriages, and for other purposes.

Exports.—The chief exports are palm-oil, ground-nuts, teak-timber, and ginger, with small quantities of ivory, hides, pepper, and camwood (a red dyewood). The imports are India goods, cotton goods, arms, ammunition, hardware, beads, ales, wine, &c.

Population and Government.—The inhabitants are nearly all Negroes, many of whom have been freed from slave-ships. They include individuals from upwards of 100 African tribes.

Sierra Leone is a Crown Colony, its affairs being managed by a Governor and a Council of seven Members appointed by the Crown. It is the see of a bishop, the diocese embracing as well the other British Possessions in Western Africa. The capital is *Freetown* (16,000), a well-built place, with wide and good streets.

History.—It was discovered by the Portuguese in 1463, and was established as a British Colony in 1787. Negroes were removed to it from London, Nova Scotia, and the West Indies; and since the abolition of the slave-trade in 1807, the slaves captured by British cruisers have been settled in the Colony. In 1818 the Isles de Los, and more recently the Banana Islands, were added by purchase.

Digitized by Google

(c) GOLD COAST SETTLEMENTS.

Population, 300,000. *Area*, estimated at 8000 square miles.

Situation.—The *Gold Coast* is a portion of the coast of the Gulf of Guinea, lying between the meridians of 4° west long. and 4° east long. It was so called because formerly considerable quantities of gold-dust were obtained from it, which were brought from the interior.

At the back of it lie the two powerful native kingdoms of Dahomey and Ashantee. Along the coast of this gulf we have several forts and trading-stations, some of which were purchased from the Danes, and others settled.

Towns.—The chief settlement and capital of the district is *Cape Coast Castle*, a fortress built on a rock close to the sea. The town, with a population of 10,000, lies behind the fortress. There are several other forts, the chief being *Accra*, *Annamaboe*, and *Dixcove*. Fort St. James at Accra is regarded as the healthiest station on the Gold Coast.

There are no harbours, and as the surf is very violent, vessels are obliged to anchor some miles from shore. Landing is frequently dangerous.

Trade.—A considerable trade is carried on with the Ashantees, who bring palm-oil, gold-dust, ivory, &c., and receive in exchange cotton goods, fire-arms, tobacco, silk, and other goods.

The natives here and all along the Guinea Coast do not use silver and gold for money, but little shells about as large as the end of one's finger, called *cowries*, which are brought by Europeans from India and Zanzibar. A head of cowries (2000) is worth about 4*s.* 6*d.* A fowl costs 200 cowries, a sheep 5000, and a horse about 80,000.

History.—The Portuguese were the first settlers on the Gold Coast. They were driven out from Cape Coast Castle by the Dutch, who in turn were dispossessed by the English in 1661, since which time the country has been in the possession of the English, to whom it was secured by the treaty of Breda in 1667. The first British fort on the coast was founded in 1618. Some small Danish settlements on the Gold Coast were purchased by Great Britain in the year 1850.

Digitized by Google

Section III.—ISLANDS OFF THE WESTERN COAST OF AFRICA:

COMPRISING

(*a*) St. Helena; (*b*) Ascension.

(*a*) ST. HELENA.

Population, 6800. *Area*, 47 square miles.

Situations.—St. Helena is a small island in the Atlantic Ocean, about 1200 miles from the coast of Africa, and 1800 from the coast of Brazil. It forms towards the sea a wall of precipitous cliffs from 1000 to 1800 feet high, intersected by chasms which open into narrow valleys leading up to the table-land in the centre of the island.

There are no less than twenty-three such openings around the coast, but none of them can be entered except those on the north-west coast, where is James Valley, with *James Town* at its entrance, the only town and port of the island.

St. Helena lies in south lat. 16°, and west long. 6°, and is about one-third the size of Rutlandshire. When seen from a distance the island looks like a huge fortress rising abruptly from the ocean. Its immense distance from both continents might seem to have doomed it to be one of the most solitary portions of the earth's surface; but its position in the direct line of ocean commerce from India to Europe has made it a most important halting-station or half-way house for vessels performing that voyage. It is also of great value as a naval station. During the time that it belonged to the East India Company it was of incalculable service in the protection of their trade. In the hands of an enemy it would afford shelter to privateers which would completely cut up our Indian trade.

Climate.—The climate is one of the healthiest within the tropics. It is not too warm, as there is always a good breeze, the island lying in the strength of the south-east trade-wind. Rain falls every month: the total quantity is about 27 inches annually, which is about the same quantity that falls in the neighbourhood of London.

History.—St. Helena was discovered by the Portuguese in 1502. It was afterwards possessed by the Dutch and English alternately, but the latter have retained it since 1673. The East India Company held it till 1833, when it was made over to the Crown. They used it for training recruits for their army. In the year 1815 it was chosen as

Digitized by Google

the place of Napoleon's banishment, and there he resided from 1816 till his death in 1821. St. Helena was made the see of a bishop in 1859, the diocese to include Ascension, and Tristan d'Acunha,* together with the charge of the English residents on the east coast of South America.

(*b*) ASCENSION.

Population, 500. *Area*, 20 square miles.

Situation.—ASCENSION is a little rocky island about 800 miles north-west of St. Helena, of volcanic origin, and for the most part rugged and barren. The only anchorage is off Sandy Bay, on the north-west side of the island, opposite *Georgetown*, the seat of government.

The island is little more than a single rocky mountain surrounded by numerous craggy peaks of less elevation. It formerly suffered much from want of water, but in 1829 a spring was discovered in the centre of the island which more than supplies the wants of the population. The water is brought to Georgetown in iron pipes.

Sandy Bay is much frequented by East Indiamen and whalers. Sailors have been in the habit of enclosing letters in a bottle is a well-known crevice in the rock near the landing-place, called the "Sailor's Post-Office," which are taken to their destination by vessels going either out or home, as the letters may be addressed.

Productions.—The scanty herbage of Ascension serves but to support a few goats, but their flesh is peculiarly delicate; and sheep and cattle are now reared. The island has, however, long been famous for its turtle, which are caught in great numbers here every year.

As many as 2500 have been taken in one season, viz., from May to December, but from 400 to 500 is the usual number. Many of them weigh from 500 to 800 lbs. each. Another delicacy of the island is the egg of the tropical swallow, which is largely used as food, and of which so many as 100,000 are frequently gathered in a week.

History.—The island was taken possession of by the English in 1815 as a military station, during the confinement of Napoleon at St. Helena. It is now principally used as a victualling station and an hospital for sailors of the squadron employed to stop the slave-trade on the coast of Africa, who suffer from the fevers so common on that coast.

---

* A small island, or rather group of three islands, about 1700 miles south-west of Cape Town.

Digitized by Google

Section IV.—MAURITIUS AND THE ADJACENT ISLANDS.

MAURITIUS.

Population, 242,000. *Area*, about 700 square miles.

Situation and General Character.—Mauritius is a small oval-shaped island in the Indian Ocean, about 600 miles to the east of Madagascar; and is evidently of volcanic origin. The interior contains numerous hills and mountains, mostly occurring as short isolated ridges or summits. Its length is 40 miles, and its area about the same as that of Berkshire or Oxfordshire.

The island is surrounded by a coral-reef, which runs nearly parallel to the shore, and at a distance from it varying from $\frac{1}{8}$ to $\frac{1}{4}$ of a mile. In this reef there are ten or twelve breaks through which ships can reach the island, but the two most commonly used are those of Port Louis on the north-west, and Grand Port on the south-east coast.

Surface.—The island presents the most diversified and beautiful scenery throughout, being everywhere in a high state of cultivation. Fertile plains and valleys are abundant, watered by rivers or streamlets which become periodically dry.

The highest elevations are in the south-west, where some reach the height of 3000 feet. One of the most celebrated is the *Peter Botte* Mountain, a few miles from Port Louis (2600 feet), but the most curious is one near Mahebourg, the summit of which has almost the exact form of a cat in a sitting posture; the whole outline, even to the ears, being clearly defined.

Climate and Productions.—The climate though damp is healthy, but the island is periodically exposed to most terrific hurricanes, which do great damage. The rainy season lasts from November to March, during the north-east monsoon.

When discovered Mauritius was covered with wood, but the forests have now been nearly all cut down. Its vegetation is somewhat like that of the Cape Colony, but almost every beautiful tropical plant grows here. Some valuable kinds of wood are obtained from the island, particularly *black ebony*, which is esteemed the most solid, close, and shining of any

Digitized by Google

ebony in the world. *Iron-wood* is another valuable timber produced here. The island has become of late years one vast sugar-plantation. Next to sugar, rice is most largely grown.

Its annual produce of sugar is about 100,000 tons, most of which comes to Great Britain; but the Cape Colony, Arabia, and Persia, are all supplied from Mauritius.

Of rice from three to four million pounds are exported annually, chiefly to the Cape. The imports are provisions of all kinds, live stock, coffee, and manufactured goods.

Madagascar is one of the chief markets for the supply of food to Mauritius; oxen, pigs, and poultry being largely imported into it from that island.

Towns.—The capital is PORT LOUIS, which is beautifully situated in the centre of a snug harbour of the same name on the north-west side of the island. Its population is 75,000. The next most important place is *Mahebourg*, on the south-east coast. Railways have been introduced into the island.

The harbour of Port Louis is at present the only one containing dry docks, and the necessary accommodation for repairing in security the hulls of the sailing and steam ships on the whole of the great ocean-route from Europe to India.

Population.—The greater part of the population of the island are Coolies, Negroes, Malays, and other people of colour. The white inhabitants are mostly of French descent, the island having formerly been colonized by France; and French is the language most commonly spoken.

History.—Mauritius was discovered by the Portuguese in 1505, but they made no settlement. In 1598 the Dutch took possession of it and named it in honour of the Stadtholder Maurice. Falling eventually into the hands of the French in 1715, it became a colony of that nation, and continued so till 1810, when it was captured by the English, under General Abercrombie; being finally ceded to us in 1815. An English bishop was appointed in 1854.

The importance of Mauritius as a military and naval point in the Indian Ocean is very great, considering that the neighbouring French island of Bourbon has also a commanding situation. In an emergency, its two good harbours would aid in protecting our vast Indian commerce round the Cape of Good Hope.

Digitized by Google

THE SEYCHELLES, &c.

Under the same government with Mauritius are the *Seychelles*, a group of 29 islands lying about 900 miles to the north of Mauritius; the *Amirante* Islands, a coral group, south-west of the Seychelles; *Roderigue*, about 300 miles to the east of Mauritius, and the *Chagos* Islands, in the middle of the Indian Ocean. Mahé is the largest of the Seychelles. Port Victoria, on its eastern side, the seat of government, has a very fine harbour.

Climate and Productions.—The Seychelles have a splendid climate. Hurricanes and even gales of wind are almost unknown. There are two monsoons: the south-east, from May to October, the cool season; and the north-west, from November to April, the hot and rainy season. The islands rest upon a bank of sand and coral, and are covered with a luxuriant vegetation, including most excellent timber. Numerous small vessels have been built at the Seychelles. The exports are chiefly vacoa-bags for holding sugar, cocoa-nut oil, timber, including some very beautiful furniture-woods, the shells of the *coco de mer*, or sea cocoa-nut, tortoise-shell, and some cocoa, cloves, and other spices. Formerly a flourishing cotton-trade was carried on, but it subsequently failed from want of labour.

The Sea Cocoa-nut is the fruit of a palm not only peculiar to the Seychelles, but indigenous in three islands only of the group. It was so called because it was frequently met with floating at sea, and was believed to be the fruit of some submarine plant. Fabulous virtues were ascribed to it; amongst others that attributed to cups made of the horn of the Rhinoceros, viz., the detection of poison contained in any liquid poured into it. Immense prices have been given for the fruit, and are still given.

History.—The Seychelles were discovered by the Portuguese in the sixteenth century, and were subsequently taken possession of by France. In 1814 they were ceded to Great Britain as one of the dependencies of Mauritius.

Digitized by Google

BRITISH COLONIES

IN

AMERICA.

INTRODUCTION.

Area—General Features.—The British possessions in North America comprise the whole of the northern part of that continent, except a small territory in the north-west corner of it, which belongs to Russia. They include also Newfoundland and some other islands in the Gulf of St. Lawrence. British North America extends from the Arctic Ocean on the North to a line formed partly by the river St. Lawrence and its lakes, and partly by the parallel of 49° N. lat. (or as it is more commonly called the forty-ninth parallel) on the south. The area of this immense district is roughly estimated at 3,600,000 square miles, which is nearly the same as that of Europe, and considerably greater than that of the United States territory lying to the south of it. But a small portion of it, however, is under cultivation, or even inhabited by an English-speaking population.

The whole region may be generally described as consisting—on the western side of the continent, of an elevated tract traversed by a lofty mountain chain (that of the *Rocky Mountains*) from north to south; and on the eastern, of a vast plain, low in elevation, stretching away to Hudson Bay and the Atlantic Ocean, its eastern boundary. This plain is watered by a most intricate and extensive system of rivers and lakes; but the chief lake district—so large and important that it is estimated to contain half the fresh water of the globe—is confined to its south-eastern part, the valley of the St. Lawrence. Between Hudson Bay and the Atlantic Ocean is the barren and inhospitable table-land of Labrador; while to the north-west of the bay is a monotonous, stony waste, abandoned to the Esquimaux and the reindeer, having a scanty vegetation and a perpetually frozen subsoil.

Coast Line.—The coast line of the northern part of the continent is somewhat irregular, but less so than that of Europe. This irregularity is specially marked on its eastern side, where there are several gulfs and bays, the largest of which, that called *Hudson Bay*, is on the western side of the peninsula of Labrador. Further south is the *Gulf of St.*

Digitized by Google

Lawrence, on the eastern side of the same peninsula. It is important to notice that a large part of the coast line of the British North American provinces abounds with natural and almost landlocked harbours, many of which are superior in size and security and depth of water to the most vaunted harbours of Great Britain. Milford Haven, Queenstown, Bantry Bay, or Plymouth, are below any standard of comparison with these magnificent refuges.

Hudson Bay, which is connected with the Atlantic Ocean by Hudson Strait, is more properly an inland sea; for it is more than 1000 miles long, by nearly 600 in breadth. During the greater part of the year navigation in it is stopped by the ice. Its shores, which contain many smaller inlets, are entirely surrounded by the Hudson Bay Company's territory, described below.

The Gulf of St. Lawrence is very dangerous for ships, on account of the thick fogs so frequently covering it, which often prevent objects being seen beyond a distance of fifty or sixty yards. In winter the bay is almost covered with ice, which comes down the river St. Lawrence in large blocks. South of the Gulf, lying between Nova Scotia and the continent, is the *Bay of Fundy*, a long narrow inlet of the sea, chiefly remarkable for the great height and force of the tides in it, which are often the cause of shipwrecks.

What is called *Baffin Bay*, is more properly a strait, being the northern end of that broad channel to the west of Greenland, which connects the Arctic Ocean with the Atlantic Ocean. The southern end of the same channel is called *Davis Strait*. The shores of Baffin Bay are for the most part hemmed in by ice. In summer the bay is navigable; but for eight months in the year it is covered by vast masses of floating ice. During the former season, an extensive whale-fishery is carried on in the bay.

The chief capes along it are—*Cape Sable* the southernmost, and *C. Canseau* the easternmost point of Nova Scotia; *North Cape*, at the north of Cape Breton Island; *C. Chudleigh*, on the north of Labrador, at the entrance to Hudson Strait; and Capes *Parry* and *Bathurst* in the Arctic Ocean.

Climate.—The climate of British North America in the settled districts along the St. Lawrence varies greatly, and is subject to great extremes of heat and cold. Every additional degree of longitude westward, however, increases the mean temperature, though it does not mitigate the extremes. In the far west there may be said to be five months of winter, during which the thermometer is as often as not below zero, and seven months of summer; there being no gradual change of temperature from one season to the other such

Digitized by Google

as we have in England in spring and autumn. Further east the climate is much influenced by the neighbourhood of the ocean. Particulars will be found under the account of each colony.

General Remarks.—"The British colonies in North America present a noble example of the greatness that may be achieved by an industrious and persevering people, when governed by wholesome laws, enjoying free institutions, and protected by a powerful and liberal parent state. Once a few scattered settlements, in some instances so poor as to require aid from the home government for their support, they have increased in number and expanded in size, gaining strength and vigour with advancing years, until now they are little short of a powerful nation, in many of the elements which constitute national greatness."

"The progress of Canada alone has been marvellous. If her history under France, commencing with her early settlement, and ending with the capture of Quebec, has given to her a peculiar historic interest, it is entirely secondary to the interest she has awakened by her advancement since she became a British colony. Less than a nation, when compared with many of the older countries of Europe, she is, in point of enterprise, in wealth and industry, the second power in America; while in the extent of her resources, in the genius of her people, and the freedom of her institutions, she stands almost without a peer. Her sister colonies in America look upon her without envy; they are proud of her position, they admire her genius—a community of interests exists between them and her, and should bind each to the other indissolubly. Their united future can only be unravelled by time; it is now a mystery to themselves; but if their past progress affords any index to their position hereafter, and human advancement continues in the ratio of progression it has exhibited in the last century, it is not too much to say that in the colonies of Canada, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, and Prince Edward Island, are the germs of an empire greater than any now existing." *

We proceed to describe in order the several provinces of British North America.

CANADA.

Population, nearly 3,000,000. *Area*, 360,000 square miles.

Boundaries and Extent.—The most important province in British North America is Canada, which extends from the meridian of 90° W. long. eastward to the Gulf of St. Law-

* From a pamphlet by J. V. Ellis of New Brunswick.

Digitized by Google

rence. The natural boundary of this province on the north, the watershed dividing the tributaries of the St. Lawrence from the rivers flowing into Hudson Bay, has been never fully explored. Its boundary on the south is formed by the great lakes *Superior*, *Huron*, *Erie*, and *Ontario*, and by a portion of the river *St. Lawrence;* but from a point sixty miles above Montreal, Canada extends south of the river, and at its eastern end adjoins the province of New Brunswick.

The province of Canada extends upwards of 1000 miles in length from east to west, with an average breadth of 300 miles; and is roughly estimated to embrace about 360,000 square miles of territory. It is consequently more than one-third larger than France, nearly three times as large as Great Britain and Ireland, and more than three times as large as Prussia. But as yet only an eighth part of this immense area is brought under cultivation, or as it is termed, *settled.* The settled portion, lying for the most part immediately along the St. Lawrence, at present extends over a surface of about 40,000 square miles, and is therefore nearly as large as England. Such, however, is the rapid progress of the colony, that probably in ten years the settled parts of Canada will be equal in extent to the whole of Great Britain.* Strictly speaking, the province lies in the direction of north-east and south-west rather than of east and west; and extends through nearly ten degrees of latitude. The southernmost point of Canada lies under the same parallel as Rome, and the northernmost almost under the same as Paris.

General Features—Hills.—Stretching from the Atlantic Ocean back into the vast regions of the half-explored west; with a continuous frontier of lake and river extending for 2000 miles into the interior of the country; bounded on the north by the Hudson Bay Territories, and running south at some points to the parallel of 42° N. lat.; Canada presents a vast and varied area, with facilities for irrigation surpassed only by those of the Mississippi valley; with great diversity of climate and an enormous variety of productions; with abundance of the most fertile soil and an inexhaustible supply of water-power; and with every natural advantage calculated to call forth and stimulate the industry and enterprise of man. Strictly speaking, Canada is not a mountainous country. The greatest elevation in it is that formed by a range of hills running from east to west from the northern

* The government of Canada includes that of the *Magdalen Islands*, a little group in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, lying not far to the north of Prince Edward Island. They contain about 1100 inhabitants, chiefly French Acadians, whose principal dependence is upon the cod and mackerel fishery in their neighbourhood.

Digitized by Google

shore of Lake Superior to Labrador, said to be 1200 feet high, and covered with almost perpetual snow.

That portion of the country between Lake Huron and the River Ottawa is for the most part table-land, and has an elevation of more than 700 feet above Lake Huron, into which it is drained. A range of high land commences at the southern extremity of Georgian Bay (a part of Lake Huron), runs southward to Lake Ontario, and, skirting the lake, terminates at Queenstown, on the Niagara, where it is broken through by the great Falls. The great peninsula between Lakes Huron and Erie is a low plain, and is one of the most fertile parts of the province. The country on the right bank of the St. Lawrence from Montreal to Quebec, is flat and low, and is the most thickly-peopled district in Canada.

Rivers and Lakes.—Canada is thoroughly well watered by means of its rivers and lakes, which form a network of communication over its whole extent. It is comprised almost wholly within the basin of the *St. Lawrence* and its tributaries. Of the latter the most important are:—On the left bank the *Ottawa*, the *St. Maurice*, and the *Saguenay*; and on the right bank the *Richelieu*, the *St. Francis*, and the *Chaudière*. The most striking natural features of the country, however, are the Great Lakes, which form its southern boundary. These are Lake *Superior*, farthest to the west; and below it Lake *Huron*, Lake *Erie*, and Lake *Ontario*.

The total length of the stream, from its source west of Lake Superior to its mouth, is nearly 2000 miles. At Quebec, it is about 1300 yards wide; at the mouth of the Saguenay, 25 miles wide; and at its entrance into the Gulf of St. Lawrence, 100 miles wide. The water of the river is salt almost to Quebec. To this latter place ships of 1000 tons can easily ascend, and vessels of 600 tons can get up as far as Montreal. The enormous fresh-water lakes or inland seas need only a passing notice. The following table expresses concisely some interesting facts concerning them:—

Names.	Distance from ocean in miles.	Area in square miles.	Height above the sea-level in feet.
Superior	1640	32,000	610
Huron	1350	18,000	573
Erie	1040	12,000	564
Ontario	760	6,600	234

Lake *Michigan*, which is usually included in the list of these lakes, belongs wholly to the United States. Between Lakes Erie and On-

Digitized by Google

tario are the celebrated *Falls of Niagara*, down which the River Niagara leaps a sheer height of 160 feet.

The navigation of the river St. Lawrence is much extended by means of two important canals. One of these, the *Rideau Canal*, extends from the town of Ottawa to Kingston, near the eastern end of Lake Ontario. The other, the *Welland Canal*, one of the finest specimens of canal engineering in the world, runs from the western end of Lake Ontario to the eastern end of Lake Erie, and so makes the navigation continuous which would otherwise be broken by the Niagara Falls.

By a recent regulation of the Canadian Government, all tolls on the St. Lawrence and its canals have been abolished; and two free ports have been established, one at each end of the province, viz., *Gaspé*, at the mouth of the river, and *Sault St. Mary*, on Lake Superior.*

There is no lack of water-carriage anywhere. The tributaries of the St. Lawrence are immense rivers, some of them hardly inferior in importance to itself. Even one of the feeders of the Ottawa is as broad, as rapid, and nearly as long as the Rhine. The only obstacle to perfect water-communication are rapids, which frequently occur in the beds of the rivers. These, however, are generally avoided by means of short canals running parallel to them. The natural advantages conferred upon Canada by the St. Lawrence and its lakes and tributaries are incalculable. The immediate and direct water-communication with the sea for 2000 miles of inland coast, to say nothing of that of the vast affluents which feed the main stream, is one of the most striking, and doubtless marks a distinguished commercial future for the country. To this may be added the vast influence which the inland seas exercise upon the climate, vegetation, and health of the colony itself. So perfect is the canal-system of Canada already, that ships freighted with corn on Lake Michigan now sail right into the docks at Liverpool.

Two other canals connected with the river system of the St. Lawrence ought to be mentioned on account of their importance, though within the United States territory. One of these, the *Great Erie Canal*, connects Buffalo on Lake Erie, with Albany on the Hudson; and the other connects Lake Huron with Lake Superior.

Climate.—The climate of Canada is very healthy, though to new comers somewhat trying, owing to its extremes of heat and cold, which far exceed those common to European countries under the same parallels. It is what geographers

* The advantages attached to this latter privilege are that goods, wares, and merchandise of every description, except articles prohibited by law, may be landed for consumption or exportation, without being liable to the payment of any customs' duties.

Digitized by Google

call *extreme.** Thus, at Quebec, the summers are as warm as those in Paris, yet the winters are as severe as those in St. Petersburg. The cold of winter is, however, greatly mitigated by the absence of wind. The sky is then remarkably pure and transparent, and fogs are very rare.

The temperature is more severe during the winter in Eastern than in Western Canada. In the latter district it is rendered milder not only by reason of the more southerly position of the country (the latitude being that of Northern Italy), but also on account of the influence of the large inland lakes which almost surround a large portion of Canada West. Snow lasts generally from two to three months, according as the place at which it falls is near to or remote from the edge of the lakes. In every part the change from winter to summer is very rapid.

The snow-fall is looked for with great anxiety, especially in the thinly-settled districts, as it furnishes a natural railroad for traffic, which in a new country, where roads are few, is of great importance. The Canadians always choose the winter to visit their friends at a distance, because then they can get over the ground most readily and pleasantly by means of their sleighs.

The influence of the great lakes in the elevation of winter temperature and the reduction of summer heats is very strikingly felt. Much information on this point may be derived from a consideration of the vegetable productions. Thus from the head of Lake Ontario, round by

---

* An extreme climate is one in which the mean temperatures of January and July differ by more than 60° Fahrenheit (see *The World*, chap. ix. § 3). The following table shows the temperature and rainfall (the two points most affecting climate and vegetation) of Toronto, Quebec, and Montreal, as compared with that of London:—

Place.	Mean temperature of			Rainfall in inches.
	Hottest month.	Coldest month.	Year.	
Toronto	66½° Fah.	24° Fah.	44° Fah.	31
Quebec	70°	16°	42°	51
Montreal	71½°	13½°	42°	52
London	62°	37°	49°	30

The statements of *mean temperature*, whether for the hottest or the coldest month, do not furnish adequate means of realising either the intensity of the cold, or the absolute heat occasionally experienced. For example, once or twice during each winter the thermometer sinks as low as 25° or 30° below zero, and even lower; while in the height of summer a temperature of 95° or 100° is occasionally registered. Such incidents of low and high temperature, however, occasion no inconvenience, and pass unnoticed by the majority of people.

Digitized by Google

the Niagara frontier, and all along the Canadian shores of Lake Erie, the grape and peach grow with luxuriance, and ripen to perfection in the open air, without the slightest artificial aid. The Island of Montreal is distinguished for the fine quality of its apples. Indian corn, hops, and tobacco, are common crops, and yield fair returns. Hemp and flax are indigenous plants, and can be cultivated to any extent in many parts of the province. So much is this the case, that, with a proper expenditure of capital, England could doubtless be made quite independent of Russia, or any other country, for her supply of these valuable products.

The excessive cold does not often occasion personal inconvenience, as it is always specially provided against. It is a street civility to give warning of a frost-bitten nose; and there are nights at Quebec when the sentries are withdrawn, to save them from being frozen to death. Shopping is disagreeable in snowy weather, the heat of the room melting the snow upon one's dress, which the open air instantly covers with a sheet of ice. Fish and meat are sold frozen, and it is a point of good cookery to know the best way to thaw them. Notwithstanding these disadvantages, winter is the chief season of Canadian festivities; of which sleighing forms an important part.

PRODUCTIONS.

(*a*) **Mineral.**—The mineral resources of Canada are vast, but are at present almost entirely unworked. Unfortunately the development of coal is believed to be small, but in the neighbouring colonies it is most abundant. Various kinds of iron-ore, copper, lead, zinc, gold, silver, and other metals, building materials, marbles, and such like productions of the rocks are widely distributed.

This branch of industry, at present so little attended to, remains, therefore, for future enterprise. The value of minerals raised is not above 50,000*l.* annually, and of this sum the greater part is produced by the Lake Huron copper-mines. One of the most extensive copper districts in the world occurs on the northern shore of Lake Superior. Veins of lead, rich in silver-ore, exist a little below Quebec. A most valuable discovery has been recently made in various parts of Canada, especially in the peninsula between Lakes Huron and Erie, of natural springs of petroleum or mineral oil, capable of yielding an apparently inexhaustible supply of the material, at the rate of many thousand barrels of oil a day. The introduction of this oil, as an article of commerce, bids fair to open up a trade of great activity between Canada, Great Britain, and the continent.*

* This is the material which, somewhat purified, is known as *paraffin oil*. In its crude form it is likely to be largely employed in the manufacture of gas, especially in countries where coal is not abundant. The same substance, with varied treatment in process of refining, yields a most valuable lubricating oil,

Digitized by Google

(*b*) **Vegetable.**—The greater part of Canada is covered with enormous forests, chiefly of white and red pine. The other important forest-trees are the oak, maple, elm, ash, birch, walnut, beech, willow, cedar, hemlock, and tulip trees.

All the important cultivated cereals and vegetables, and other useful plants common in Europe, particularly wheat, barley, oats, maize, potatoes, hemp, flax, tobacco, and hops, thrive well in Canada.

In the fertility of its soil and its fitness for the growth of cereals Canada is second to no country in the world. In some regions as many as thirty crops of corn have been raised in succession without the application of manure.

The variety of the vegetation found in the vast Canadian forests is astonishing; indeed, it may be stated that there is scarce a tree known in the north temperate zone that does not flourish in Canada, while, at the same time, many of its species are peculiar to the North American continent.* None of them are more beautiful or useful than the maple, the timber of which is valuable for many purposes, while large quantities of sugar are made from its sap. A tree twenty inches in diameter will commonly yield, for thirty years, sap sufficient for making five pounds of sugar each year.

Timber and ashes, the raw produce of the forests, are at present the most valuable exports of the colony.

(*c*) **Animal.**—The wild animals of Canada are the bear, bison, reindeer, wolf, lynx, cougar, wild cat, fox, beaver, squirrel, marten, and other smaller ones. Among birds, wild

---

much esteemed for machinery of rapid motion, and now generally used for steam engines and machinery of every description; naphtha, a solvent for caoutchouc and other gums; benzine, a perfect substitute for turpentine; and what is perhaps more important than all, the pure paraffin for candles. It is also greatly used as a basis for producing various dyes, such as mauve, magenta, rosaline, azurine, &c. There can be little doubt but that petroleum is to take the place of a large portion of all other oils, by reason of its superior brilliancy of light, cleanly nature, established cheapness, and the absence of trouble in its use.

* It may be convenient here to mention how peculiarly attractive the scenery of Canada becomes towards the early part of October, owing to the gradual changes of colour in the foliage which then present themselves. Where-ever there are trees in view the leaves are seen to be tinted with various hues of colour. Patches of wood scattered over the surface, and especially extended masses of forest-trees viewed from any eminence, offer to the eye a very gorgeous spectacle, which, for brightness of colour, variety, and the charming aspect of the whole scene, would inspire disbelief if it were ever so truthfully delineated by the painter's art alone. Some of the most pleasant weather of the whole year often occurs just before the winter sets in, and the season is commonly designated as the "*Indian Summer*." A peculiar hazy appearance skirts the distant horizon; and the soft, balmy character of the air resembles that of the real summer, as if that were, indeed, lingering on into, and trespassing on, the confines of advanced autumn.

Digitized by Google

swans, turkeys and geese, together with woodcocks, snipes, eagles, kites, hawks, and other species similar to those common in Europe, are abundant. The puff-adder and two species of rattlesnake are met with in the woods and hills away from the settled regions. Canadian waters abound in fish of almost every variety known in England, besides in many peculiar to the country. The domestic animals of the province are much the same as those of Europe.

The larger wild animals are now very scarce in the settled districts, but are abundant in the uncleared forests to the north. The beaver, too, is seldom found within reach of European settlers. There is, however, a large trade in skins of various kinds of animals hunted in the colony (see p. 127).

The fisheries on the coasts, lakes, and rivers are highly important. At present they are only beginning to attract attention, but no doubt they will ultimately furnish a productive source of wealth. Canada East possesses in the River and Gulf of St. Lawrence an extent of coast a thousand miles in length, along which cod, herring, mackerel, salmon, and other fisheries are carried on successfully. A large number of fishing-vessels from the United States, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia also frequent these waters. In Canada West the extensive area, great depth, clear cold water, abundant feeding-banks, shoals, and spawning-grounds of the principal lakes render the fish found therein numerous, of good quality, and large size. The chief species are salmon, salmon and other kinds of trout, herring, sturgeon, bass, and pickerel. The annual take of fish in Upper Canada is estimated at 80,000*l.* value, and in Lower Canada at three times as much.

Political Divisions.—Previously to the year 1840, Canada was divided by the River Ottawa into two provinces, known as *Upper Canada* and *Lower Canada*, each with a separate legislature and capital. In that year, however, the two provinces were united under one Government with a common capital, and they have been since distinguished by the names CANADA WEST and CANADA EAST, respectively, instead of their former ones.

Canada East includes all that part of the province on the right bank of the St. Lawrence, as well as that on the left bank east of the river Ottawa. Canada West includes chiefly the country to the north of the Great Lakes. Canada East is divided into forty-two counties, each of which is divided into certain districts, called townships. The inhabitants of a township elect a council of five members, the president of which becomes also member of the County Council. The Township Council provides for the support of common schools, and the construction of roads and bridges; while the County Council has to construct and repair gates, court-houses, and grammar-schools.

Digitized by Google

When a village acquires a population of above 3000 it becomes a *town*, governed by a Mayor and Council. When its population exceeds 10,000, it may be created a *city*, and as such governed by a Mayor, Aldermen, and Council. In Canada West a similar system prevails. That section of the province is divided into sixty counties, each of which has a County Council.

Towns.—The seat of government and therefore the capital of Canada is OTTAWA, situated on the right bank of the River Ottawa, at the entrance to the Rideau Canal. The other important towns are *Montreal*, *Quebec*, *Toronto*, *Hamilton*, *Kingston*, *London*, *Three Rivers*, and *Sherbrooke*.

Ottawa is in the midst of a vast extent of rich uncultivated country, and is the great centre of what is called the *lumber* * trade of Canada, more than half the lumber used in, and exported from Canada, coming from the district immediately beyond it. Its population, at present about 20,000, is rapidly increasing.

The region in which it is situated is one of the most productive corn districts in Canada, and the scenery round the city is of unsurpassed beauty—wild, romantic, and picturesque in a degree rarely to be met with elsewhere. At Hull, on the opposite bank of the river, are most valuable iron-mines. Ottawa is, therefore, the centre of a district which has highly valuable mineral, agricultural, and lumbering resources. The city was chosen to be the future capital of Canada by Queen Victoria in 1858, at the request made by the legislature of the province that she should name a new seat of government for the United Province; and the first stone of the Parliament buildings was laid by the Prince of Wales in 1860.

Montreal, the largest, handsomest, and most commercial city of Canada, stands on the south-eastern side of an island of the same name in the St. Lawrence, a few miles above the confluence of the river Ottawa, and about 600 miles from the sea. Its population is at present about 110,000.

The Roman Catholic cathedral, capable of containing 10,000 people, is the finest building in Canada, if not in the whole of America. The churches, market-places, wharves, banks, and college of the city, are also much admired. Owing to its position and its fine port, Montreal is the great focus of trade between the United States and Canada.

* "*Lumber*" is the general name in Canada and the United States for timber that is sawn or split for use. It is therefore applied to beams, joists, boards, planks, staves, hoops, and the like. The persons employed to cut down the timber and make it into rafts, for floating down the rivers, are called *lumbermen;* and the merchants who engage in the trade, a very extensive one in Canada, are called *lumberers*.

Digitized by Google

It is the centre of a great railway system, recently much extended by the opening, in August, 1860, of the great Victoria tubular-bridge, two miles in length, across the St. Lawrence. The industrial pursuits of Montreal are shown by its iron-foundries, distilleries, and breweries, as well as by its factories for the manufacture of cutlery, soap, candles, hardware, and other necessaries.

Quebec, the Gibraltar of the continent, and formerly the capital not only of Lower Canada, but of the whole British dominions in North America, stands on a very small promontory on the left bank of the St. Lawrence, a little below the junction of the Chaudière.

There is, perhaps, no city in the world more striking in appearance. Its fortress is, next to Gibraltar, the strongest that exists. Quebec is the great centre of trade between Canada and Great Britain. Shipbuilding is here very largely carried on. The population of the city is now about 70,000. Quebec has nearly the same latitude as Geneva.

Toronto, beautifully situated near the western end of the northern shore of Lake Ontario, was formerly the capital of Upper Canada. It is the great market at which Canadian wheat is collected for exportation to the United States and Great Britain. The population, which has increased fourfold since 1842, is now nearly 80,000. Toronto is a handsome, thriving town, possessing a good university, and is the see of a bishop. It has the same latitude as Florence.

Kingston is a thriving town near the eastern end of Lake Ontario, at the entrance to the Rideau Canal. *Hamilton* lies on the southern side of the western end of Lake Ontario. *London* is situated on the river Thames, one of the chief streams which drains the important peninsula between Lakes Huron and Erie. Its population, which has very largely increased of late years, is now nearly 20,000. *Three Rivers* is an important town in Eastern Canada, nearly midway between Montreal and Quebec, standing at the mouth of the river St. Maurice, which here divides into three portions. It is famous for the manufacture of iron, there being some valuable mines in the neighbourhood. *Sherbrooke* is a very rising town on the river St. Francis, and may be regarded as the capital of that portion of Canada known as the "Eastern Townships," a district lying south of that part of the St. Lawrence between Montreal and Quebec, and inhabited mainly by an English-speaking Protestant community.

Population, Religion, and Education.—Canada West is mainly peopled by descendants of British and Irish emigrants, and colonists from the British Islands. There are also many Germans and Dutch, as well as settlers from the United States, Norway, and Denmark. In Canada East, the majority of the inhabitants are of French origin, except in the larger towns. In the unsettled portions of the country, both east and west, the number of Indians is still considerable.

Digitized by Google

The French Canadians are much less prosperous than the other inhabitants of the country, owing to their want of energy, their aversion to danger, and their jealousy of the English. They have a peculiar code of laws, resembling that of the old French monarchy. Of the total population of Canada, about one-half are Roman Catholics (chiefly in Eastern Canada), about one-sixth members of the Church of England, one-seventh Presbyterians, one-eighth Methodists, and the rest Baptists, Lutherans, and Christians of other denominations.

The number of native Indians left in Canada does not exceed 12,000, and it is gradually decreasing. They belong chiefly to two tribes—the Chippeways or Ojibbeways, dispersed over the region about Lakes Superior and Huron, and the Mohawks or Iroquois along the St. Lawrence. A few of them have embraced Christianity, and have settled in villages, but the majority are still heathens, and live the life of hunters.

There are five Dioceses of the Church of England in Canada; two in Canada East, viz., Montreal (the metropolitan see), and Quebec; and three in Canada West, viz., Toronto, Huron, and Ontario.

Education is progressing very rapidly in the Province, and large grants of money are made every year by the Government in support of it. The people of Canada East, speaking the French language, are, as a rule, much more ignorant and superstitious than those of Canada West.

Upper and Lower Canada enjoy separate school-laws adapted to the religious elements prevailing in either. The common schools are supported partly by Government and partly by local taxation. Grammar-schools and academies are numerous. There are several universities in the province; that of Toronto is richly endowed. Almost every town and village of Upper Canada has its own printing-press and newspaper, as also have the principal places in Canada East.

Government.—Though Canada is a colony of Great Britain, the management of its affairs is entrusted entirely to Canadians. There is a *Governor* appointed by the Sovereign of Great Britain, whose representative he is in the colony; and there are besides two bodies, corresponding to our two Houses of Parliament, viz., a *Legislative Council*, or Upper House; and a *House of Assembly*, or Lower House.

The former consists of not less than twenty members, who are appointed for life by the Governor. The latter consists of eighty-four members, forty-two from each division of the colony, who are elected by the people for a period of four years. To assist the Governor there is, besides, an *Executive Council* composed of twelve members chosen from the two houses.

The laws of England were introduced into Upper Canada in 1791,

Digitized by Google

and still prevail, subject to various alterations which have been made from time to time by the Canadian Parliament. In Lower Canada the old laws of France prevail, subject to alterations similarly made. In neither division does the British Government interfere, unless some great national interest is involved.

Internal Communications.—The Railway system of Canada is becoming very complete, although the whole of it has sprung up since 1852. Already nearly 2000 miles of railway are open, giving a continuous line of road, from a point 110 miles below Quebec, to the western extremity of Lake Erie through Quebec, Montreal, Kingston, Toronto, Hamilton, and London. There are besides numerous branch lines, connecting this railway system with that of the United States. The Canals have been already mentioned (see p. 102).

As soon as the railway system of New Brunswick is completed there will be continuous communication from Halifax in Nova Scotia to Quebec, as there is already from Portland in the State of Maine to Quebec. When this is the case, a vastly increased traffic may be expected to arise. It is contemplated to extend the railways to the westward, so as, if possible, to connect the colonies of Canada and British Columbia.

Steamers ply in all directions on the lakes and rivers, the rapids and falls of which are being gradually overcome by means of canals. Postal communication is very complete in Canada, the most distant hamlet having its post-office. The electric telegraph, too, passes through every town and also through almost every important village in the colony; the number of miles in operation being nearly 5000.

Commerce.—As in all newly-settled, half-occupied countries, the most valuable, and indeed almost the only exports are those of raw materials, particularly the produce of the field and the forest. To these may be added that also of the mines and fisheries.

The commerce of a producing country like Canada, drawing its wealth from its agriculture, forests, mines, and seas, is fairly represented by its chief exports and imports. The following table, compiled from official returns, and representing the average annual value of the exports of the colony, will show the direction in which the industry of the Province exerts itself:—

Produce of the Forest (timber and ashes)	£2,500,000
Agricultural Produce (wheat, oats, potatoes, &c.) ..	2,000,000
Animals and Animal Products	1,000,000
Manufactures, Shipbuilding, Minerals, &c.	1,300,000
Produce of the Sea (fish—dried or pickled, fish-oil, seal-skins, &c.)	200,000
Giving a grand total of exports of about	£7,000,000

Digitized by Google

More than half the produce thus exported goes to the United States, and above a third of it to Great Britain. The rest finds its way principally to the other British North American colonies.

The chief articles supplied by Canada to Great Britain, arranged in the order of their value, are timber not sawn or split; sawn timber in the form of deal, battens, and staves; wheat; potash and pearlash; flour; peas; butter; salted beef; and skins; and it takes in return a large amount of cotton goods, hardware of all kinds, linen and woollen goods, and various articles of European and Colonial produce. By far the largest amount of trade is done with Great Britain; next to which come the United States, France, the Hanse Towns, and Holland.

History.—Canada was discovered in 1497, in the expedition made by the Venetian navigator John Cabot and his son Sebastian, in the service of Henry VII., King of England; but no steps were then taken to secure possession of the country. It was visited several times by French sailors in the early part of the sixteenth century, and during the years 1534-40 frequent but unsuccessful attempts were made by France under Cartier, Roberval, and others to colonize *New France*, as Canada was then called. The first permanent settlement was formed by the French in 1608, under Champlain, who laid the foundation of Quebec.

In 1629, during the war between England and France, an English squadron took Quebec and other French settlements in America; but these, together with Acadia and Cape Breton, were restored to France at the peace in 1632. In 1664, during the reign of Louis XIV., a large body of French emigrants landed in Canada, and New France seemed likely to flourish. The country, however, never prospered under French management, owing to the absurd and tyrannical restrictions imposed upon the religion and commerce of the settlers. It was about this time that the English began to acquire large possessions in that part of America which subsequently formed the United States; and the consequence was, that from about the year 1680 to 1760 almost continual warfare was carried on, with varying success, between the English in British America and the French in Canada. In 1759 three distinct bodies of English troops were sent to invade Canada. The army commanded by General Wolfe defeated the French under the walls of Quebec, though Wolfe fell in the action; and the town opened its gates to the English. By the capitulation of Montreal during the succeeding year the conquest of Canada was completed; and in 1763, at the Peace of Paris, the whole province was formally ceded to England by treaty, together with the other French possessions in that part of America.

Since that time the Canadians have proved very faithful allies of Great Britain, especially in the war against the American colonies in

Digitized by Google

1775-83, and again in 1812-14, when the United States declared war against this country, and invaded Canada. In 1837-38, a rebellion broke out in Eastern Canada, which is occupied chiefly by descendants of the French. The outbreak was put down without much loss of life; and, after its close, the two provinces, were united A.D. 1840 under one legislature (see p. 106), which for some years had formed separate governments, distinguished as Upper and Lower Canada. Nothing of particular historical interest has since happened in the colony, except the visit of the Prince of Wales in 1860, and the loyal determination shown by the colonists in 1861-2 to stand by England in support of her just rights against the outrage committed by the United States' navy on the British ship *Trent*.

NEW BRUNSWICK.

Population, 250,000. *Area*, 27,600 square miles.

Boundaries and Extent.—The greater part of New Brunswick lies to the eastward of Maine, the most northern of what are called the New England States. It is bounded on the south by the *Bay of Fundy;* on the east by the *Gulf of St. Lawrence;* and on the north by *Chaleur Bay* and the *River Ristigouche*, of which that bay forms the mouth. Its area is about half that of England and Wales, and larger than that of Belgium and Holland united.

The boundary between it and Maine is formed partly by the meridian of 67° 50' west long., and partly by the little river *Scodie*, which flows into the Bay of Fundy. At the south-eastern corner of New Brunswick a very narrow isthmus between the Bay of Fundy and the Gulf of St. Lawrence connects Nova Scotia with this colony.

Surface.—The surface of the country is varied, and in the north is rugged and hilly. Its northern part forms, in fact, a table-land about 2000 feet in elevation, having upon it numerous ranges of hills, and studded with lakes. Its central part rises gradually from the shores of the Gulf of St. Lawrence towards the interior for a distance of about 40 miles. Beyond this it forms an extensive plain, drained for the most part towards the north-east by the rivers *Miramichi* and *Ristigouche*, with their tributaries; but in the west and south by the river *St. John*, the largest and most important river in the colony. The southern part slopes to the south-west, and is drained into the river St. John. New Brunswick abounds in admirable bays and harbours.

The natural features of the province are picturesque, rather than

Digitized by Google

bold and startling, as in some parts of Canada. Its plains and valleys are very fertile. Large portions of the country are covered with thick forests, but they are becoming gradually cleared by the settlers. The cleared districts are found to yield most abundant crops of corn, as well as flax and other agricultural produce. Owing to the want of labour, however, agricultural pursuits are not followed up as they should be; and the few new settlers who go to the colony, instead of farming, generally enter into the lumber trade. New Brunswick seems overshadowed by the greatness of Nova Scotia. With only three-fourths of the area of Newfoundland it has double the population. Its soil is as productive, and its water-power as abundant and available as that of Canada. Labour only is wanted to enable the colony to enter with every advantage into competition with Ottawa for the lumber-trade of British North America.

Climate and Productions.—The climate of New Brunswick is very much influenced by the position of the country on the eastern side of North America, and by the prevalence of westerly winds. It is subject to extremes of heat and cold like that of Canada, though not to so great an extent; and is also more variable and humid, owing to the nearness of the Atlantic Ocean; but, on the whole, it is exceedingly pleasant. About one-fourth of the colony is one continuous coal-field, from which coal of excellent quality could be worked, did not the abundance of wood for fuel render it at present unnecessary. Forests of great extent, as already stated, everywhere abound, and yield those immense supplies of timber that are yearly exported. Corn and other agricultural produce is very plentiful wherever farming operations are pursued to any extent. Of wild animals, the bear, the wolf, and the racoon are the most formidable. The fisheries, too, around the coasts of New Brunswick are very important. The mineral resources of the country are extensive, but are, as yet, almost untouched.

For many years past as many as 300 bears have been killed annually. So injurious were these animals to the early settlers, that the Government of the colony offered a reward for their destruction. A similar bounty is now offered for the destruction of wolves, by which means the colony will soon, it is hoped, be rid of such animals. The mineral resources of the colony remain at present almost untouched, for want of capital to work them. Coal is believed to be very abundant, as carboniferous rocks extend over more than one-fourth of the entire province. Some most valuable mines in Albert County, at the head of the Bay of Fundy, are now in operation, and promise to be very successful. The iron, copper, and other metals of the colony will be worked more extensively when coal becomes more common.

Digitized by Google

Government, Towns, &c.—The government of the province is a miniature of that of the mother country. The legislature is composed of three branches: the *Lieutenant-Governor*, who represents the monarch; the *Legislative Council*, consisting of members appointed for life by the Crown, representing the House of Lords; and the *House of Assembly*, the members of which are elected by the people, representing the House of Commons. There is, besides, an *Executive Council* to advise the Governor. The province is at present divided into fourteen counties, all of which are accessible by water. It forms a Colonial Diocese of the Church of England, the see of Fredericton having been founded in 1845. In education, New Brunswick is in advance of most other British colonies.

The capital and seat of government is FREDERICTON, a small place with about 5000 inhabitants, situate about 80 miles up the river St. John; but the chief town is ST. JOHN, at the mouth of that river, which contains, with Portland its suburb, about 40,000 inhabitants. The other towns in the colony worthy of mention are *Liverpool*, on the Gulf of St. Lawrence; *Newcastle*, at the mouth of the Miramichi; and *Bathurst*, on Chaleur Bay.

FREDERICTON is a charmingly clean and pretty town; its streets are wide, regular, and well planted at the edges of the footpaths with luxuriant trees. The houses are high and well built, and the three churches are all striking and handsome buildings; so that the town, locked in by a noble ridge of purple hills, has, when viewed from the river, a rural beauty which is most striking.

ST. JOHN, which is the real, though not the legislative, capital of New Brunswick, is one of the most picturesque and flourishing cities of the North American Provinces. It stands in a nook of the Bay of Fundy, on an amphitheatre of gently rising hills. Its streets, though steep, are wide and clean; the houses lofty and regular; and there is an air of business and prosperity about the place very different from the languor that ordinarily prevails at Halifax, in Nova Scotia. At St. John there are large and spacious docks and immense saw-mills; and the banks of the river are covered with frames of ships on the stocks in every stage of forwardness. There are some handsome and spacious public buildings, some very beautiful churches (the Roman Catholic Cathedral, on the top of a hill, is a noble structure), and a suspension-bridge across the St. John, quite as handsome as that over Niagara, and fully twice its span. Yet, with such evidences of permanent and long-established prosperity, it will scarcely be believed that less than seventy years have elapsed since the site of the city was covered with a dense forest.

Digitized by Google

Commerce.—The exports of New Brunswick consist chiefly of raw produce, and the imports of British manufactured goods and Colonial produce.

The following list of the chief exports to Great Britain alone in 1860, with their approximate value, will give some notion of the character and extent of the export trade:—Timber, in the form of baulks, deals, boards and scantlings, 1,486,400*l.*; fish, including cod and salmon, 6400*l.*; pig-iron, 2100*l.*; fox and marten skins, 1000*l.*; train-oil and blubber, 400*l.* Besides the above, the value of fish exported to the West Indies and elsewhere amounted to upwards of 60,000*l.* New Brunswick timber comes almost entirely from ports in the Bay of Miramichi.

The imports from Great Britain to New Brunswick in the same year, arranged in the order of their value, were:—Iron, apparel, cotton goods, woollen goods, cordage and cables, linen goods, tea, earthenware, coals, copper, painters' colours, salt, linseed-oil, tin-plate, cotton yarn, leather, silk, wine, brandy, stationery, and machinery.

NOVA SCOTIA AND CAPE BRETON ISLAND.

Population, 331,000. *Area*, 18,000 square miles.

Boundaries.—This province is situated on the south-eastern side of New Brunswick, from which it is separated by the *Bay of Fundy*. It is bounded on the north by the *Gulf of St. Lawrence*, and on the south by the *Atlantic Ocean*. Its principal natural divisions are Nova Scotia Proper and Cape Breton. Nova Scotia Proper is a long peninsula of a somewhat triangular shape, connected with New Brunswick by an isthmus six miles in breadth. Cape Breton is an island of very irregular form, lying on the north-east of Nova Scotia Proper.

The peninsula runs in a direction nearly north-east and south-west. Its length, from Cape Sable to Cape Canseau, is about 250 miles; and Halifax, the provincial metropolis, is situated about midway between those points.

The narrow channel between Cape Breton and Nova Scotia is called the *Strait* (or sometimes the *Gut*) *of Canso*. The area of Nova Scotia is about one-third of England and Wales, and the area of Cape Breton about half that of Yorkshire. The Bay of Fundy is remarkable for its nigh tides, the rise of which amounts often to 60 feet, and, at times, takes place so suddenly, that cattle feeding have been swept away from its shores.

Surface.—The surface of Nova Scotia is generally undulating but not mountainous. It is watered by numerous

Digitized by Google

small lakes and rivers, and the coast abounds in bays and harbours. The soil is very fertile, and the inhabitants have remedied the obstacles presented to their agriculture by incursions of the sea over its generally low levels, by an extensive system of dykes. The surface of Cape Breton is similar to that of Nova Scotia, and its eastern coast is very much indented by arms of the sea.

Owing to the form of the country there are no long rivers. The best lands for agricultural purposes are those called in the colony "dyked marsh" and "intervale." The *dyked-marsh* lands are formed by the deposit left by the rapid tides of the Bay of Fundy, and their fertility is unparalleled. There are instances of this species of land having been cultivated for a century without any manure. "Intervale" land is formed by the deposit of fresh-water rivers, and is extremely productive. The most marked feature in Cape Breton is the *Bras d'Or Lake*, which nearly divides the island into two parts, and communicates with the sea at its eastern end by two narrow channels.

Along the whole of the south-eastern coast of the colony, 800 miles in length, the sea is open all the year round, and this is the only part of the eastern side of British America of which such a statement can be made. The chief port, too, Halifax, has so run away with the admiration of travellers, that the other excellent harbours of Nova Scotia are lost sight of. It is almost a natural fortification, and can afford safe anchorage to the navies of Europe. Pictou, its rival on the north coast, is less fortunate, in being blocked up by ice for five months in the year, but it has seams of coal 30 feet thick, which supply to Halifax the only thing wanting to its perfection.

Climate, Productions, and Trade.—The climate of this province is similar to that of New Brunswick, except that it is still less subject to extremes and even more variable, owing to the greater influence of the ocean upon it. It is peculiarly adapted for an agricultural country. Its cultivated productions are similar to those of middle and northern Europe. Geologically the country is very rich, especially in coal and iron. Recently gold has been found in many districts, but it is probably too much diffused to prove a valuable source of wealth. The wild animals of the colony are similar to those of New Brunswick.

Wheat, under inferior cultivation, will yield thirty bushels an acre, and barley forty. The native woods of Nova Scotia are very varied, and of excellent quality. By far the most valuable production is coal, of which it has fields sufficiently large to supply the whole steam navy of Great Britain for centuries to come, and also to meet amply the demands of the North American colonies. It is probable that Nova Scotia, in proportion to its extent, stands unrivalled in the

Digitized by Google

productive capabilities of its coal-fields. These deposits can scarcely be too highly valued when considered in connection with increasing steam traffic, and the fact that no coal-fields of any considerable value exist either in Canada, Newfoundland, or Prince Edward Island. The two largest worked fields at present are near Pictou* and Sydney, on the northern coast. There is a very important coal-field on the north side of Sydney Harbour, in Cape Breton, which comprises thirty-four seams, and is apparently inexhaustible. The total value of the coals raised in the province is now upwards of 100,000*l.* annually. Only a small quantity of iron is at present manufactured in Nova Scotia, but its quality is so excellent that it is largely used by the British Government in the manufacture of guns at Woolwich. The existence of gold deposits in this colony was unsuspected till 1860, but was satisfactorily proved in 1861. The site of the first discoveries was on the Tangier River, about 80 miles east of Halifax; but since then gold has been found from the Strait of Canso to Yarmouth, the eastern and western extremities of Nova Scotia Proper—extending over a district of country equal in size to almost half England.

Government, Towns, &c.—The government of the colony is based upon the same principles as that of Canada and New Brunswick, and is administered by a *Lieutenant-Governor*, assisted by an *Executive Council*. There is also a *Legislative Council* and a *House of Assembly*. The two Councils, as well as the Governor, are appointed by the Crown, but the House of Assembly is re-elected every four years by the people. The province is divided into eighteen counties, four of which are in Cape Breton. Its population is mainly of British origin, but there are still about 5000 Indians in the interior. The capital is HALIFAX, which stands on the south-east coast of the peninsula, about midway between its two extremities, and is famed for its excellent harbour. The colony, together with Prince Edward Island, forms the Diocese of Nova Scotia, which was founded in 1787.

The other towns in Nova Scotia worthy of mention are:—*Pictou*, on the northern side of the peninsula, on Pictou Harbour, a place of considerable commercial importance, in which ship-building is extensively carried on; *Yarmouth*, the most important town in the western part of Nova Scotia; *Liverpool, Annapolis, Lunenburg*, and *Windsor*. The chief town in Cape Breton is *Sydney*, situate on its eastern coast.

The city of HALIFAX contains about 35,000 inhabitants. Its trade is extensive, as it is the principal depôt for the importation of British and West Indian goods, and for the export of the produce of the

* One of the beds of coal in the Pictou district is the thickest known in the world, its vertical section presenting a face from 33 to 36 feet in breadth.

Digitized by Google

fisheries. The natural harbour, above Halifax, is the finest probably on the face of the earth. This noble sheet of water is about 10 miles long, by 7 broad, free from rocks or shoals, with a great depth of water all over; and, except at its narrow entrance, completely land-locked and shut in by picturesque hills, which, clad with red and white pine to their very summits, make the whole scenery of the lake as rich and solemn-looking as can well be imagined. To say that the whole navy of Britain could ride here in safety, gives but a poor idea of the immense capacity of this harbour. Not only the Royal navy, but all the shipping of Liverpool, could be accommodated in it with ease, and there would then be room to spare. The heights around it, too, are so steep and rugged that a very little trouble or expense would convert them into such a series of impregnable fortresses as might defy all the armies and navies of the world to assail them.

Manufactures, Commerce, &c.—The imports and exports of Nova Scotia are similar to those of New Brunswick. Its fishery trade is almost beaten out of the market by that of Newfoundland and the United States. Shipbuilding is a considerable branch of industry, and in no country of the world can ships be built so cheaply as here. There is also an extensive manufacture of cloth in the colony.

The true source of wealth to the colony has yet to be developed in its magnificent coal-fields, and in the position and capacity of its harbour of Halifax, which is at the same time the best harbour on the eastern coast of America, and the nearest to Great Britain. Nova Scotia sends no fish to the mother country. Her chief market for dried and pickled fish is in the West Indies, to which she also sends timber, flour, oats, butter, and other commodities, in return for sugar, molasses, and other West Indian produce. The merchant shipping of Nova Scotia is equal to that of all our other American colonies together.

PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND.

Population, 81,000. *Area*, 2130 square miles.

Situation and Size.—Prince Edward Island is situate in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, to the west of Cape Breton Island, and to the north of Nova Scotia, from both of which it is divided by Northumberland Strait, a channel varying in width from 9 to 30 miles. It is somewhat crescent-shaped, convex towards the south; and measures about 120 miles in length from east to west, and from 3 miles at its narrowest to nearly 40 miles at its widest part in breadth. The island is about equal in size to the county of Norfolk.

Digitized by Google

Prince Edward Island lies between the parallels of 46° and 47° north lat., and therefore corresponds in position with the South of France. Its shores are deeply indented by the sea, and its bays, harbours, rivers, and creeks are numerous; so that hardly any part of its surface is more than 7 miles from the reach of the tide.

Surface, Climate, and Productions.—The whole surface is gently undulating, without either mountain or hill; the soil is even more fertile than that of New Brunswick, and is well watered by numerous streams; and the climate is milder than that of either New Brunswick or Nova Scotia: the island is therefore admirably adapted for agricultural purposes. It produces grain of all kinds, together with an abundance of food suitable for cattle, horses, sheep, and pigs; hence these animals are reared in considerable numbers for sale in the neighbouring colonies. Timber, too, is largely exported. No coal has been discovered in the colony.

A large part of the island is still in the state of wilderness, abounding in forest tracts. There is a great variety of woods; beech, birch, maple, fir, pine, spruce, and larch being the most common. Wild animals are few, and small; the most common being the hare, fox, marten, minx, musk-rat, and otter. Occasionally a few black bears are killed in winter. Birds of various kinds are abundant. The coasts abound with fish, but the fisheries are not prosecuted with sufficient spirit by the inhabitants of the island, and they have consequently fallen mainly into the hands of the Americans of the United States. Still, large quantities of fish are taken and exported by the people of Prince Edward Island.

Government, Towns, &c.—The island is presided over by a Lieutenant-Governor, who is assisted by an Executive Council and a representative House of Assembly; and is divided into three counties. Its capital is *Charlottetown*, on the south-west coast, containing 7000 inhabitants, and situate on a good harbour. *Georgetown*, on the east coast, is also a considerable port, where many ships are built.

Its history is somewhat peculiar. Discovered at the same time as the neighbouring countries, this colony was first settled by the French, and was held by them for many years as a fishing station. Taken from them by the English in 1745, it was subsequently restored; but was again seized during the period of the Seven Years' War, 1756-63, when the greater part of its French inhabitants were compelled to leave. Ever since it has remained in the hands of the English.*

---

* The island, which was formerly called *St. John*, received its present name in memory of Edward, Duke of Kent (the father of Queen Victoria), who,

Digitized by Google

Three-fourths of the population are native-born, the descendants of English, Scotch, and Irish ancestors; but there are several thousand people of French extraction, and some few native Indians.

History.—The history of the three territories of New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, and Cape Breton Island has been almost one since their first discovery by Sebastian Cabot, in 1497. Nova Scotia, together with New Brunswick, was first colonized by the French, in 1605, under the name of *Acadia*, when Port Royal, the chief town, now called Annapolis, was founded. The French settlers were expelled soon afterwards by the neighbouring English colonists, and a body of English was sent thither by James I. Between these and the French occupants of Cape Breton a continual warfare was carried on, until, in 1667, Acadia was secured to the French by the Treaty of Breda. In the war which commenced in 1689, a body of New Englanders seized Port Royal, but it was again restored to France by treaty a few years afterwards. War having been declared in 1701, Port Royal was once more taken by the English; and in 1713, on its conclusion, the whole province was finally made over to Great Britain, by the Treaty of Utrecht. Frequent attacks, however, continued to be made on the English settlers by the French from Cape Breton, who were much dissatisfied at the loss of the province.

In 1756 the English Government determined to expel the French from Cape Breton, which had been colonised from France previously, and, although taken by an expedition of New Englanders, in 1745, had been restored four years afterwards. In 1757 an expedition, under Generals Amherst and Wolfe, was despatched against Cape Breton, which surrendered in the following year, and was formally resigned by France in 1763, by the Treaty of Fontainebleau. Ever since the three provinces have been in the undisturbed possession of the English Crown. New Brunswick was placed under a separate government in 1785.

General Remarks on New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, and Prince Edward Island.

The three provinces of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Prince Edward Island, comprise in all an extent of country capable of supporting some 10,000,000, or even 20,000,000 people; yet their united population is much short of 800,000. Abounding as they do in the most magnificent harbours and rivers, with fisheries second only in value to those of Newfoundland; with almost boundless mineral resources in coal, iron, copper, and plumbago; with land of the richest description to be had almost for asking, and with a demand for labour, which is almost greater here than in any other part of the world,

when resident in Nova Scotia, as Commander-in-Chief of the British forces in America, took great interest in this colony. It thus became more readily distinguished from two neighbouring places, *St. John*, the chief city of New Brunswick, and *St. John's* the capital of Newfoundland.

Digitized by Google

it is greatly to be regretted that emigrants have not settled here rather than in the backwoods of America, where so many have been disappointed. The reason doubtless is, that in England such great ignorance prevails with respect to them. The popular impression regarding Nova Scotia and New Brunswick seems to be that they are much akin to Labrador—merely wild rocks, surrounded by icebergs during three-fourths of the year. Thus, between 1848 and 1860, the total number of new colonists who arrived in the two colonies was short of 50,000; while to keep pace with the urgent demand for labour in all parts of the provinces, scarcely 50,000 yearly would have been sufficient. The truth is that the colonies are teeming with wealth, if only there were labour to bring it forth. Nature, in fact, seems to have done everything for the country—man nothing. For want of settlers, for instance, to clear the land and fell the trees, the capital of New Brunswick, the pretty little town of Fredericton, is hemmed in by a forest so primitive and wild as still to harbour bears, deer, and wolves on the very confines of the city.

Prince Edward Island is even more fertile than New Brunswick. In both colonies land may be bought for about 4*s*. 6*d*. an acre, and the payment even of this small sum spread over a long term of years. Yet only a small proportion of the persons who settle in New Brunswick ever take to farming. They generally go into the lumber trade, for felling the pines and floating them down the stream on rafts yields the quickest return, though nothing like the profit that may be gained from farming. Persons in England are apt to associate a soil covered with pine-trees with the thin, stony hills from which the Scotch fir wrings a precarious existence. But there is as much difference between a luxuriant Canadian pine and a Scotch fir as there is between a myrtle and an oak. For farm-labourers, sufficiently intelligent to understand how a virgin soil should be treated, and who are willing to work hard for a few years, no country offers greater inducements than New Brunswick and Prince Edward Island. If those who go there have a little capital, say 50*l*. or 60*l*., of course, so much the better; but even those who take only their labour are certain of getting a good living, and, by the exertion of that industry and frugality which are necessary all over the world, may well look forward in the course of time to complete independence.

Railway communication is gradually extending in these colonies. In Nova Scotia lines already exist from Halifax to Windsor, and to Truro; and two lines are completed in New Brunswick. What is most wanted now is a continuous line between Halifax and Quebec, to place the cities of Canada in connexion with a port open throughout the year. It is impossible to over-estimate the advantages to Canada and our other North American colonies that would immediately arise.

Digitized by Google

NEWFOUNDLAND.

Population, 125,000. *Area*, 36,000 square miles.

Situation and Area.—Newfoundland is a large island lying on the eastern side of the Gulf of St. Lawrence and to the south-east of Labrador. From the latter peninsula it is separated by the narrow *Strait of Belleisle*, which in its narrowest part is not more than 10 miles in breadth; and on the other three sides it is open to the Atlantic Ocean. It is estimated to be about an eighth part larger than Ireland.

Newfoundland corresponds in latitude with the northern half of France. Its eastern shores make the nearest approach to Europe of any part of the New World, the distance from St. John's to Valentia on the south-west coast of Ireland being about 1600 miles. This island almost shuts in the Gulf of St. Lawrence on the east, the channel between it and Cape Breton being only 50 miles in width. The population includes a small number of native Indians residing in the interior.

Surface—Coast Line.—The surface of Newfoundland, so far as it has been explored, is gently undulating around the coast, and decidedly hilly in the interior; but from the nature of its soil and the severity of its climate, the greater part of the island may be regarded as hopelessly barren. It is watered by numerous streams, and is largely covered with lakes, ponds, bogs, and swamps, together with forests of birch and pine. The shores are high and rocky on the eastern side, but contain a large number of good harbours. The principal on the south-eastern side are *Trinity Bay*,* *Conception Bay*, *St. Mary Bay*, and *Placentia Bay*.

Trinity Bay, on the north, and Placentia Bay, on the south, approach very near to each other. They mark off on their eastern side the peninsula of *Avalon*,† the most thickly-populated, and the only part of Newfoundland that has been settled. Cultivation of the land is not much cared for, as almost the whole population is engaged in fishing. The climate is healthy, although the cold in winter and the heat in summer are both rather great, and heavy fogs prevail in the autumn. The shore of Labrador, which is annexed to the government

* It was in Trinity Bay that the American end of the Atlantic Telegraph Cable was laid in 1858.

† Avalon was so called by Lord Baltimore, when he founded a settlement there in 1623, because he thought that Christianity was then for the first time planted in the New World. Avalon, it will be recollected, was the old name of Glastonbury, one of the earliest Christian settlements in Britain.

Digitized by Google

of Newfoundland, is one of the most desolate districts in the world, but it abounds in safe harbours and productive fishing-grounds, which are visited from June to September, when the bays are free from ice.

Fisheries.—The possession of Newfoundland is chiefly valuable on account of the fishing-grounds in its neighbourhood, to which the attention of the settlers is mainly given. Almost the sole wealth of the island consists in the produce of its waters. Besides abundance of salmon in its rivers, the shores are frequented by shoals of herrings, mackerel, and other kinds of fish, and, above all, by enormous multitudes of cod. The fishery is pursued both off the coasts and on the neighbouring banks at different distances from the island.

The Newfoundland Banks are large submarine elevations lying off the southern side of the island, of which the largest, known as the *Great Bank*, is about 300 miles in length by 100 in breadth, and has a depth of water over it varying from 20 to 50 fathoms. *Green Bank*, and *Banquero*, lying to the west of Green Bank, are but little less in extent. The cod-fishery upon them, which lasts from June to October, is the richest in the world, and gives employment to many thousands, and food to millions. The cod are taken with hooks, and only during daylight. An expert fisher will take from 200 to 300 fish in a day, and will sometimes catch as many as 12,000 in the season. The fish are sold in every part of the world, but the principal markets are the West Indies, Spain, Portugal, and Italy. Of late years the Newfoundland fishermen have confined their operations to the shores of the island and of Labrador, where they get more marketable fish and oil; and have left the fishery on the bank almost entirely in the hands of Americans and Frenchmen. The latter have *St. Pierre* and *Miquelon*, two small islands off the southern coast of Newfoundland, as drying-stations for their fish. The fishery is attended with danger, arising from the dense fogs which are common over the Banks, and which owe their origin to the meeting in this neighbourhood of the warm waters of the Gulf-stream with the cold waters of the Arctic current.

Government, Towns, and Exports.—The colonial government is administered by a Governor, who is aided by a Legislative Council, and a House of Assembly; and the island forms one of the Colonial dioceses of the Church of England. As before stated the settlements in Newfoundland are all upon the coast, and are almost exclusively small fishing-hamlets. The only town is the capital, *St. John's*, on the south-east coast, in the peninsula of Avalon, and its population is about 18,000. The exports comprise an immense quantity of dried fish, seal-oil, cod-oil, train-oil, seal-skins, herrings,

Digitized by Google

salmon, and other fish. The imports of the colony are similar in kind to those of New Brunswick.

Within the last few years the island has been partly explored for mineral deposits, and already valuable discoveries have been made notwithstanding the difficulties in the way of a thorough survey, seeing that few inhabitants live so far as 5 miles from the seaboard. Numerous specimens of valuable copper-ore from various parts of the island, together with several ores of silver, and also of lead and iron, were shown at the International Exhibition of 1862. There is already a considerable and increasing export of lead and also of copper-ore.

The Government of Newfoundland includes that of the coast of Labrador, as already mentioned, and also that of ANTICOSTI, a long, narrow island in the mouth of the St. Lawrence, which contains only a few families placed there to attend to the lighthouses and to assist ships in distress.

History.—Newfoundland was discovered in 1497 by Sebastian Cabot, a Venetian sailor, in the service of Henry VII. The first settlement in it was made in the middle of the next century, by Mr. Hoar, a London merchant, with a view to the development of the fishery on the banks. Unfortunately, his efforts met with ill success. The next English settlement there was made in 1623 by Lord Baltimore, at the head of a number of English Roman Catholics. In a short time other English followed, between whom and the French colonists in the neighbouring provinces war soon broke out. The French were often victorious in their struggles, and *St. John's* was more than once burnt; but at the Peace of Utrecht, in 1713, Newfoundland was finally secured to the British Crown. Disputes have since arisen from time to time as to the right of French and American ships to fish on the coasts, but these claims have been hitherto satisfactorily settled by treaties.

HUDSON BAY COMPANY'S TERRITORY.

Population, estimated at 120,000. *Area*, estimated at 2,000,000 square miles.

Situation and Extent.—The above title is given by geographers to that part of the North-American Continent lying to the north and north-west of Canada, and extending from the Atlantic Ocean and Hudson Bay westward to the Rocky Mountains. The countries included in this vast region have an area more than five times as large as that of Canada.

Digitized by Google

Until the recent establishment of the colony of British Columbia, the Hudson Bay Company's territory extended completely across the continent to the north and north-west of Canada, the line of separation between it and the United States territory to the south being the parallel of 49° N. lat. This part of the continent derives its name from the fact that nearly the whole of it is under the control of a company of merchant rulers, known as the Hudson Bay Company.

The country between Hudson Bay and the Atlantic Ocean is the peninsula of *Labrador;* that lying immediately to the south and west of Hudson Bay is frequently called *Rupert Land.* Rupert Land was constituted a Colonial diocese of the Church of England in 1849.

Character of Surface.—This immense territory may be divided into four natural regions, viz.: (1), the *Sterile region*, including the peninsula of Labrador, and the country immediately west of the northern part of Hudson Bay; (2), the *Wooded region*, comprising the country on both sides the southern part of Hudson Bay, and extending westward to the meridian of Lake Winnipeg; (3), the *Prairie region*, extending west of that meridian to the Rocky Mountains; and, (4), the *Valley of the Mackenzie* north of Lake Athabasca, a scantily-wooded region.

Numerous large rivers traverse this extensive country, the two most important being the *Mackenzie* and the *Nelson.*

The most distant source of the *Mackenzie* is in Mount Brown; the river which flows from thence into the western end of Lake Athabasca being called the *Athabasca.* The stream which leaves Lake Athabasca is immediately joined by the *Peace River*, and flows northward, under the name of *Slave River*, into the *Great Slave Lake*, from the western end of which issues what is strictly termed the Mackenzie. The whole course of the stream, from Mount Brown to its mouth, has been estimated at 2000 miles.

The upper portion of the *Nelson* is formed by two streams, distinguished as the *Northern Saskatchewan* and *Southern Saskatchewan.* The former, which may be regarded as the main stream, rises in the Rocky Mountains, to the west of *Mount Murchison*, near the parallel of 52° N. lat. After flowing through 12° of longitude it is joined by the Southern Saskatchewan, the united waters flowing after a further course of 200 miles into *Lake Winnipeg*, the great central lake of British America. The surplus waters of Lake Winnipeg are carried off at its northern end by the *Nelson*, into Hudson Bay. A very important tributary of this lake is the *Red River*, flowing in at its southern end, and joined on its left bank by a much larger stream, the *Assiniboine*, which, with its tributaries, drains an immense area.

Since the establishment of the colony of *British Columbia*, in 1858, attention has been drawn to the Hudson Bay Com-

Digitized by Google

pany's territory, to see whether any and what portion of it might be available for settlement; and also whether it would be practicable to establish a line of communication through it and across the Rocky Mountains between British Columbia and Canada.

Such a region, if it exists, must be sought for in the southern part of the territory, between the 49th and the 57th parallels of north latitude, west of Hudson Bay; for it is most unlikely that the pine-covered rocks, the morasses and wastes—barren from almost perpetual winter—which lie to the east of Hudson Bay, will ever attract settlers from either England or Canada. The same remark applies to the great tract of country lying north of the parallel of 57°, throughout the whole of which the soil is permanently frozen to a considerable depth, only a small thickness at the surface being thawed during the short summer. In but a few favoured spots in this region have a little barley and a few potatoes been raised; and, except in stations supplied with provisions from a distance, civilised men cannot here permanently maintain themselves. It is from this inhospitable country that the Hudson Bay Company draw their chief supplies of the most valuable furs.

Of that part of their territory south of the parallel of 57°—a vast region, 1200 miles long and 500 broad—more than one-half has so arid and barren a soil and so rigorous a winter climate, that settlement must necessarily be confined to spots offering some peculiar inducements, such as mines or fisheries. The real area open for colonization, therefore, is probably little more than twice as large as Great Britain.

Red River Settlement.—The best districts yet discovered are the following: a strip of country at the base of the Rocky Mountains, 40 miles in width; a strip along the valley of the northern Saskatchewan; and a portion of the valley of the Red River. The latter region is already occupied in part by an English-speaking population, and forms what is known as the *Red River Settlement*, the capital of which is *Fort Garry*.

The district of the Red River Settlement was explored in 1858, and was then shown to be highly fertile. The soil of one-third of it is capable of producing all the crops of Canada in abundance, and the rest is pasture-land of the best description. The climate is somewhat more extreme than in Canada, but is well adapted for farming operations. Unfortunately this region and the Saskatchewan valley are separated from Canada by an almost insurmountable barrier, in the shape of a rocky and swampy tract of land to the west of Lake Superior, over which no road exists. The Red River Settlement was founded in 1813 by Earl Selkirk, and comprises a population of about 10,000, consisting mainly of retired servants of the Company, and what are known as half-breeds. The route to the settlement hitherto used by the Company,

Digitized by Google

which enters the country by Hudson Bay, is so inferior that within the last few years it has been almost abandoned by them. That which they have now adopted, and which physically forms the natural entrance into the country, is through the United States territory from the valley of the Mississippi.

Roads across the Continent.—The study of the physical geography of North America shows that the British portion of the continent is far more adapted for the construction of a line of communication across it than that further south. The river-system of a country indicates the direction of its great natural roads; and whereas that of the southern half of North America runs from north to south, as represented by the *Mississippi* valley, the direction of the great rivers in British America is from east to west, as exemplified by the *Saskatchewan* and the *St. Lawrence;* or from west to east, as in the *Columbia*, on the other side of the Rocky Mountains. To this may be added the very important fact that the lowest known pass in the Rocky Mountains, *viz.*, the VERMILION PASS, which lies between the upper portions of the Southern Saskatchewan and the Kutanie, a tributary of the Columbia, in north latitude 51°, is situated in the line of these two rivers; and is only 4950 feet in height. A road along the tract thus pointed out would pass through country that can be easily settled, and might be constructed for a comparatively small sum of money. Such a road would not only ensure the growth and unbounded prosperity of British Columbia, but would be the leading step in a career of steady progress, through which the British dominions in North America might be ultimately peopled in an unbroken chain from the Atlantic to the Pacific by a loyal and industrious population.

Productions.—The wealth of the Hudson Bay Company's territory consists in its animals, particularly the reindeer, musk-ox, elk or moose-deer, bears, wolves, foxes, beavers, otters, and a multitude of smaller animals, which are killed on account of their flesh or for their skins. The native inhabitants are either Esquimaux or Indians. The former occupy the sterile region on both sides of Hudson Bay and along the shores of the Arctic Ocean, and the Indians wander about in the other regions. The Europeans in the territory may amount to a few thousands. They are either settled in the establishments of the Hudson Bay Company, for the purpose of receiving the furs and forwarding them to places whence they may be sent to England, or they travel through the country to collect them.

The following is the number of the principal kinds of skins imported into Great Britain in one year, from British North America, by far the larger portion of which came from the Hudson Bay Company's territory:—Badger, 997; bear, 9175; beaver, 70,012; coney, 70,733;

Digitized by Google

deer, 2295: ermine, 1854; fisher weasel, 14,647; fox, 35,598; lynx, 14,182; marten, 180,247; minx, 59,015; musk-rat, 327,500; otter, 15,111; rabbit, 110,000; seal, 371,275; wolf, 9547.

Government.—The Company's vast territories are ruled by a governor-in-chief, under whom are sixteen factors controlling districts or provinces into which the whole territory is divided. Subordinate to these are twenty-five chief traders. Each factor or trader has head-quarters, called a fort, factory, or post. The factors and traders are not paid by salary, but by a percentage on the profits of the Company. Associated with or subordinate to these are five surgeons, forty chaplains or missionaries, one hundred and fifty clerks, and twelve hundred servants, besides a large number of labourers, fishers, hunters, &c. The Indians, who kill the animals and bring their skins for sale, are not servants of the Company, but independent traders; and dispose of their skins by barter.

The standard of value between the Company and the hunters is a *beaver-skin*, and the European articles which are given in exchange for skins are estimated like the skins themselves at so many "beavers." Thus ten musk-rats are worth one beaver, and one silver-fox is worth four beavers. So one blanket equals four beavers; and a common gun, worth 22*s*., is equal to twenty beavers.

History.—Labrador was discovered by John and Sebastian Cabot, in 1497, when navigating the seas in that part of the world in the service of England. Hudson Bay received its name in honour of Henry Hudson, who discovered it in 1610, at which time his crew mutinied against him, and turned him adrift in the Bay to perish. In 1668 an expedition was sent out to the Bay, under the auspices of the English-Russia Company, in whose service Hudson had been, and a fort was built on the Rupert River, at the southern end of the Bay. On the return of this expedition a company, with Prince Rupert at their head, obtained a charter of incorporation from Charles II. in 1670, with the exclusive privilege of trading for furs with the Indians who lived north and west of the Bay. Their rights were not interfered with until, in 1783, some merchants in Montreal, under the title of the North-West Company, began to trade with the Indians in the Rocky Mountains. Jealousy and quarrels ensued between the officers of the two companies, but finally terms were settled on which they agreed to trade together, and in 1821 the companies were united. About this time the Americans endeavoured to establish their right to trade in the territory; but by a treaty between Great Britain and the United States, the exclusive privilege of trading north of the parallel of 49° N. lat. was secured to this country, and in 1846 that parallel was agreed upon as the boundary between the British and United States territory.

Digitized by Google

BRITISH COLUMBIA.

Population, 40,000. *Area*, 200,000 square miles.

Situation and Extent.—British Columbia comprises that part of British America lying between the Rocky Mountains and the Pacific Ocean. It is bounded on the north by *Simpson River*, and on the south by the frontier of the United States, the parallel of 49° N. lat. Its length is about 400 miles, its average breadth about 260, and its total area more than twice that of Great Britain.

The colony of British Columbia, as originally constituted by Act of Parliament in 1858, was made to include the *Queen Charlotte*, *Princess Royal*, and other adjacent islands, except *Vancouver Island;* but provision was made that the latter might be incorporated with British Columbia upon a joint address of its two Houses of Legislature.

Character of Surface.—We have at present but a scant and very imperfect account of this gold-bearing colony. Its eastern half is very mountainous, what is called the *Rocky Mountain Chain* being but the eastern flank of an immense tract of mountain country, of which the western flank is formed by the *Cascade Range*, which runs like a wall along the coast, broken by a few nicks—the Fraser River nick in Columbia, and the Columbia River nick in Washington. Between these two parallel chains lies the valley of the *Fraser*, the principal river of the colony. This river flows from north to south, and is entirely within British territory, entering the sea just north of the boundary line between Columbia and Washington.

The soil is described by some travellers as undeniably excellent in all its varieties for either agriculture or pasture, over many thousands of square miles in the colony; and they say that all the cereals, fruits, and vegetables of England and France can be readily cultivated. Others, however, say that such a description is far too favourably drawn; that, as compared with Vancouver Island, British Columbia is not calculated to become either agriculturally or pastorally rich; and that it cannot be justly represented to intending emigrants as possessing any special capability of soil or geniality of climate.

Climate, &c.—Varied as this country is by lake, mountain, forest, marsh, and prairie frequently alternating, the greatest diversity of soil and climate is met with. The mean temperature of the colony is about the same as that of Great

Digitized by Google

Britain. In the valley of the Fraser River up to its junction with Thompson River, the winter season is perhaps somewhat colder and more protracted than that of England, but in the vast territory lying between the Cascade Range and the Rocky Mountains the seasons do not exceed in severity the British average.

Throughout the colony neither the heat of summer nor the cold of winter at all approaches the extremes of Canada. In some districts of the southern part of the country the warm climate, mild as that of Devonshire, is indicated by the presence of humming-birds, and cactuses growing in the open air. Cattle can be safely wintered out, even without any supply of fodder.

Productions.—Although there is sufficient land in British Columbia suitable for pastoral and agricultural purposes to serve for an independent State, yet the colony is at present to be considered principally valuable for its unbounded mineral wealth. First and foremost in this respect is its *gold*, the abundance of which has caused such a rush of population to the colony. Silver and plumbago have been found in many districts, and copper, platinum, coal, iron, cinnabar, cobalt, lignite, and various kinds of marble are very plentiful. There is an endless supply of timber of the finest description and in great variety; the pine, fir, spruce, hemlock, cedar, oak, ash, and maple being the most common. The animal productions are similar to those of the Hudson Bay Company's territory. The lakes and rivers have an abundance of excellent fish, such as salmon and trout; and the bays and inlets of the sea swarm with sturgeon, cod, carp, sole, herring, and eel.

The gold region of Columbia presents a broad and general resemblance to that of California, lying to the south of it; the ore in neither case being found in the coast range, but in the country to the east of it. The Fraser may be considered as the main artery of the gold-bearing region, the metal having been worked at a great many places along its banks from a point about 50 miles from the mouth up to near its source in the Rocky Mountains, a distance of 800 miles along the windings of the river. The valley of the Stuart, one of the upper tributaries of the Fraser rising in the Cascade Range, is also a gold-bearing region, 200 miles in length; so that the gold-field along the Fraser River alone measures 1000 miles in length. Gold is also found in most of the tributaries of the Fraser, of which more than sixty are already known. Besides what is found in the beds and on the banks of these streams, the Fraser itself and many of its tributaries are skirted on both sides for many miles by terraces, all of which yield gold also. The most pro-

Digitized by Google

ductive of the many gold-fields yet discovered is that called the *Cariboo* district, lying between Quesnelle Lake and the Upper Fraser. It is a broken, rugged mass of mountains and streams, measuring 50 miles from north to south, and 30 from east to west, and has the Fraser on its eastern, northern, and western sides. The total amount of gold yielded by British Columbia since the discovery of its gold-fields in 1858, is estimated at 500,000*l*. worth per year: a result which more than rivals those obtained in California or Australia during the corresponding periods of their history.

Population, Towns.—Nothing definite is known respecting the number of the population. A rough estimate gives it a total of about 40,000 in 1862, the number comprising about 21,000 Europeans and Americans, 4000 Chinese, and 15,000 native Indians. The capital of the colony is NEW WESTMINSTER, on the right bank of the Fraser, about 20 miles from its mouth. Places of secondary importance are *Hope*, *Yale*, and *Alexandria*, on the Fraser.

History.—Until the year 1858, British Columbia formed part of the territory over which the Hudson Bay Company possessed, by licence from the Crown, the exclusive right of trading; but in that year the discovery of gold caused a large influx of gold-diggers from California, and rendered it necessary for Her Majesty's Government to take measures to maintain order and protect life and property. The Hudson Bay Company's trading licence was therefore revoked, and the country erected into a colony by the Act above mentioned.

VANCOUVER ISLAND.

Population 25,000. *Area*, 16,000 square miles.

Situation and Extent.—Vancouver Island lies off the southwest coast of British Columbia, between N. lat. 48° and 51°. It is separated from the mainland on the east by a channel, about 30 miles wide, called in various parts *Queen Charlotte Sound*, *Johnstone Strait*, and *Gulf of Georgia*; and from Washington, on the south, by the *Juan de Fuca Strait*. Its area is estimated at about half that of Ireland. The length of the island is about 270 miles, and its average breadth about 40 miles.

The strait of San Juan de Fuca is to the Pacific Ocean, in facility of access, safety, capacity, and the inexhaustible supply of coal to be obtained on its shores, precisely what Halifax is to the Atlantic Ocean.

Digitized by Google

Unlike Halifax, however, it affords, with one exception, the only harbour along the whole range of the Pacific Ocean from Queen Charlotte Sound to Panama Bay. San Francisco, which at present monopolizes the trade of the western coast of North America, has a dangerous bar at the entrance to its harbour, and labours under the disadvantage, as well, of having no coal.

General Features.—Vancouver Island enjoys very many of those natural privileges which have so much helped to give to our own islands a commanding influence in the affairs of the world. Its coasts are indented with many good, and three or four magnificent harbours; while from thence to Acapulco, a distance of 3000 miles, safe anchorage for large ships is to be found only at the single port of San Francisco. The soil, in the small districts where alone it has been tried, is most favourable for agriculture; and, to crown the catalogue, coal of excellent quality has been found in abundance and close to the sea.

The centre of the country, so far as it has been explored at present, may be said to be a mass of rock and mountain. The only available land is found in patches along the sea-coast; and of this there is far less than at first sight might be supposed, owing to the wide distribution of rock over the surface. Most parts of the island are accessible by water, owing to the great extent of coast, the numerous good harbours, and the many inlets which run up into it from the sea. The soil is in many parts very rich, and possesses a most luxuriant vegetation. Those who are competent judges assert that it is, in general, decidedly more productive than that of England; but its capabilities have not been fairly tested as yet, owing to the imperfect treatment hitherto adopted, which has been very rude and slovenly.

Climate and Productions.—The climate is very similar to that of England, though not so changeable. It is a little warmer in summer and wetter in winter, but with much less fog; and it is, on the whole, milder, and extremely healthy. Snow seldom remains a week upon the ground.

The interior has been so little explored that the extent and variety of its mineral productions cannot be stated with accuracy. Silver, plumbago, and rich copper and iron ore have been found, and coal has been already worked in several parts of the island. The surface is clothed with dense forests of oak and fir, but the quality of the timber is of an inferior description. Ordinary agricultural products thrive here as well as, or better than in England. The bear, deer, and wolf are the largest wild animals. The singular system of inland

Digitized by Google

seas by which the island is surrounded teems with fish of every description.

The wealth and vast extent of the gold-fields of British Columbia, now proved by results, afford prospect of a ready market for the agricultural productions of the island with the increase of population in the neighbouring colony; and the presence of so many of our ships of war as will rendezvous at Esquimalt, where it is hoped the Home Government will establish the head-quarters of the Pacific squadron, will add materially to the prosperity of the agricultural interest.

The island is capable of great development in the way of cotton, linen, and other textile fabrics; while salt, candle-making, dried fish, linseed-oil, cod-liver oil, whale-oil, starch, glass, coarse pottery, &c., are amongst its other capabilities of production, to say nothing of a probably abundant yield of copper and iron ore. In many ways it possesses advantages over British Columbia, which, if things go well, will enable it to supplement the continental dependency.

The capital of the island is VICTORIA, situate at the south-eastern extremity of the island, a little to the east of *Esquimalt*, one of the finest harbours in the Pacific Ocean. It is a free port, and is already a place of considerable importance. with a population of upwards of 5000.

Government.—The Government, like our own, is constitutional, and is controlled by a House of Assembly elected by the people, and by a Legislative Council appointed by the Crown.

The legislative power resides in these two bodies and in the Governor, who have the right to pass laws for the colony not inconsistent with the laws of England, and according to the usages and privileges of the other dependencies of the Crown.

History.—The first British settlement on the island was made at Nootka Sound, on its western coast, about the year 1778. The island was, however, rarely visited until 1849, when a lease of it was granted to the Hudson Bay Company, on condition that they should colonise it. This the Company failed to do, and in consequence the British Government resumed possession, and in 1856 erected it into a British colony.

BERMUDA.

[Name in honour of Bermudez, who discovered it in 1522.]

Population, 11,000. *Area*, 22 square miles.

Situation.—Bermuda consists of a group of islands and rocks all lying within an area 20 miles in length and 3 in breadth,

Digitized by Google

and situate in the Atlantic Ocean, about 600 miles east of Cape Hatteras. Only five of the group are large enough to be inhabited. The importance of Bermuda to Great Britain consists chiefly in the fact that it forms a capital naval station for her fleet between this country and North America.

The islands, said to be 365 in number, are situate in lat. 32° N., and long. 65° W. They are surrounded on the north, west, and south, by formidable coral-reefs (the only ones of the kind in the central part of the Atlantic Ocean), which stretch out into the sea in some places for eight or ten miles, making the navigation very difficult. The islands are low, and are mainly composed of a soft white stone, formed of the débris of mollusca, and corals still living, together with large beds of microscopic shells. The largest of the group is called Long Island.

Climate, Productions, &c.—This dependency has many gifts of nature to recommend it, being very pretty and extremely fertile. The beauty arises from the singular way in which the land is broken up into narrow necks, islands, and promontories, and surrounded by transparent water. The climate is described as a perpetual spring, and appears especially adapted for the growth of potatoes, onions, beetroot, and tomatoes.

Arrowroot comes to perfection here, but its cultivation is neglected, so that Bermuda arrowroot will soon be a thing of the past. Oranges and lemons, too, grow wild. The glory of Bermuda, however, is its cedar-trees, without which it would present but a desert appearance, they being the only trees able to withstand the fury of the elements that at particular seasons wage war on these islands.

Bermuda as a fortress is said to be very strong. In summer it is the head-quarters of the admiral in command of the Halifax station. As the islands lie in the route of vessels homeward-bound from the West Indies, they are conveniently situated for the refitting of ships of war engaged in those seas. A convict establishment was formed here to carry out the improvement of St. George's harbour.

Towns, Government, &c.—There are two towns, situated in different islands, viz., *Hamilton* and *St. George*. The former, being the residence of the Governor, is the capital; the latter is the head-quarters of the military. Rather more than half the population are negroes or people of colour. The government consists of a Governor, Council, and House of Assembly. The islands are included in the diocese of Nova Scotia.

History.—Bermuda was discovered in 1522 by Bermudez, a Spaniard. In 1609 Sir George Somers, an English navigator, on his

Digitized by Google

way to Virginia was shipwrecked here, but contrived to escape to the neighbouring continent, by means of a vessel constructed entirely of the cedar-wood growing on the islands. From him the group is sometimes called the *Somers Islands.* His report of the healthiness of the climate, the luxuriance of the vegetation, and the abundance of food, led to the formation of a colony here in 1612, since which time Bermuda has formed a dependency of the British crown.

THE WEST INDIES.

[Name from the term *India*, originally given to America by Columbus.]

Divisions, Area.—The name West Indies is applied to that extensive system of islands between the continents of North and South America, stretching from the peninsula of Florida to the mouth of the Orinoco. These islands are included mainly in three principal divisions, viz., the Greater Antilles, the Lesser Antilles, and the Bahamas. The *Greater Antilles* are Cuba, Haiti, Jamaica, and Porto Rico, the four largest and finest islands in the archipelago. The *Lesser Antilles* extend in the form of a crescent, convex towards the east, from the mouth of the Orinoco to Porto Rico. The *Bahamas* include that scattered assemblage of islands to the north of the Greater Antilles. A few unimportant islands lying along the coast of Venezuela constitute a fourth division, in which all the remaining islands of the West Indies are included.

Of these England possesses one of the first group, Jamaica; nearly the whole of the second group; and the whole of the third. The few islands composing the fourth group belong to the Dutch. The total area of the West Indies is about 93,000 square miles, *i. e.* rather larger than that of Great Britain; and the total area of those belonging to England is from 13,000 to 14,000 square miles.

The West Indies lie between the parallels of 10° and 27° N. lat., and correspond, therefore, in position to Hindostan with respect to the equator. The Lesser Antilles, called in early times the *Caribbean Islands,* were named by the Spaniards, soon after their discovery, *Windward Islands;* and those lying along the coast of Venezuela, viz., Oruba, Curaçoa, Buen-Ayre, the Aves Islands, Margarita, and some others—the *Leeward Islands;* and this is the proper use of the terms "windward" and "leeward" still, as far as the trade-winds are con-

Digitized by Google

cerned. We, however, have divided the Lesser Antilles (of which the greater number belong to ourselves) into groups; calling the northern portion of the chain between Porto Rico and Martinique, the LEEWARD ISLANDS, and restricting the names WINDWARD ISLANDS to the southern portion of the chain, from Martinique to Trinidad inclusive: it is in this latter sense therefore that the words *Windward* and *Leeward* are now used by the British Government.

The following table expresses in a concise form the area and population of the British West Indies, according to the latest returns:—

Name of Island.	How obtained.	Date of Acquisition.	Area in Square Miles.	Population.
Jamaica	Captured from Spain	1655	5500	441,300
Bahamas	Settled	1629 }	4400	4,500
Turks & Caicos Island	Separated from Bahamas ..	1848 }		
British Leeward Islands:—				
Virgin Islands ..	Settled	1665	130	9,200
Anguilla	Settled	1659	80	800
Barbuda	Settled	1628	80	400
St. Kitts	Settled	1623	68	24,400
Nevis	Settled	1628	30	9,800
Antigua	Settled	1632	120	37,100
Montserrat	Settled	1632	48	7,100
Dominica	Allotted to England	1763	280	25,100
British Windward Islands:—				
St. Lucia	Taken from the French ..	1803	230	26,300
St. Vincent	Allotted to England	1763	130	31,800
Barbados	Settled	1605	166	152,700
Grenada and the Grenadines	Ceded by the French	1763	140	31,900
Tobago	Allotted to England	1763	148	15,400
Trinidad	Taken from Spain	1797	2000	84,400
			13,550	937,500

Mountains.—Almost all the West Indian islands are mountainous, many of them being of volcanic origin, and their shores afford safe harbours.

The Blue Mountains in Jamaica, the highest in any of the British West Indies, attain to an elevation of 7150 feet; the highest point of Dominica is upwards of 5000 feet above the sea-level; Morne-Garou, in St. Vincent, is 4800 feet high; and Volcano, in St. Lucia, 4000 feet high.

Digitized by Google

Climate and Productions.—All the West Indies, except the more northerly of the Bahamas, lie between the tropics; their climate is therefore very hot, as we might expect, though the heat is considerably modified by the sea-breezes, the trade-winds, and the elevation of the land. The year, as in most tropical countries, may be divided mainly into two seasons, a dry and a wet. The dry season, which lasts from December to May, is by no means unhealthy; and during the remainder of the year, which is more or less wet, fever and other diseases are common. Few of the Lesser Antilles are well watered by rivers and springs; the inhabitants depend therefore for their supply of fresh water chiefly on that collected in tanks during the wet season. Earthquakes and hurricanes not unfrequently occur in all the islands.

During the dry season the sky is perfectly cloudless, and for weeks and even months, not a drop of rain falls. Towards the end of March this steady weather begins to be broken, and showers occasionally fall. An interval of fine weather succeeds, and then about the end of June the wet season is ushered in by violent storms, accompanied by frightful thunderstorms, and frequently by hurricanes. The mean yearly temperature is nearly 20° higher than that of London, and the rainfall about three times the average of England.

The atmosphere of the West Indies resembles that of Africa more than that of Europe; hence, while European vegetation degenerates here, African becomes strikingly luxuriant. This is especially the case with the sugar-cane introduced here from one of the African islands, the coffee-plant from Arabia, the date-palm from the Atlas, and the tamarind from Senegal. The soil is in most of the islands fertile; and the produce includes sugar, coffee, cocoa, cotton, indigo, arrowroot, ginger, various dye-woods, medicinal plants, woods for cabinet work, &c., besides a great variety of fruits, of which the pine-apple is largely exported. Indian corn is extensively grown. The cattle of the West Indies are inferior; but sheep, goats, pigs, and poultry are reared to some extent in a few of the islands. Wild animals are almost extinct, and consist chiefly of a few wild boars, monkeys, and rats. Birds and insects are very numerous. Among the former may be mentioned the humming-bird, parrots in great variety, and the flamingo, which is of a bright scarlet colour, and as large as a swan. The mineral productions are not of much importance.

Population.—The population of the British portion of the West Indies amounts to about 800,000, by far the larger portion of whom are negroes. The other portion is made up of European settlers and white Creoles together with with what

Digitized by Google

are called persons of colour, *i.e.* of mixed parentage, partly white and partly negro.*

The negroes are those, or the descendants of those, who were formerly slaves, but were emancipated—*i. e.* made free by Act of Parliament in 1834, when 20,000,000*l.* were paid to the slave owners for their redemption. Negroes were first introduced into the West Indies about the middle of the seventeenth century, from which time down to 1806, when the traffic was declared illegal, the slave-trade was carried on by England. Since that time various other European nations similarly engaged, as well as the United States, have renounced the slave-trade; and though slaves are still imported into Cuba, the traffic is altogether unlawful according to Spanish law.

Government.—All the West Indian Islands acquired by settlement are administered by a Governor, a Council, and an Elective Assembly. Such are Barbados, St. Kitts, Nevis, Antigua, Montserrat, Tortola, Anguilla, the Bahamas, Jamaica, our first capture, and also the colonies ceded by France in 1763, viz., Grenada and the Grenadines, St. Vincent, Dominica, and Tobago. The islands acquired by capture are administered by a Governor and Council, and by order of the Queen in Council. The Windward and Leeward Island groups have been placed under the Governors of Barbados and Antigua respectively, as Governors-General, a Lieutenant-Governor being allotted to the other islands of each group; and while the local governments of Barbados and Antigua correspond directly with the Colonial Office, their dependencies communicate only indirectly through them.

Ecclesiastical Divisions.—There are four dioceses of the English Church in the British West Indies: that of *Jamaica*, including that island and British Honduras; of *Barbados*, comprising the so-called Windward Islands, those, namely, lying south of the French island Martinique; of *Antigua*, which embraces the so-called Leeward Islands, those, namely,

---

* The term *Creole* denotes a person born in the West Indies of a race not indigenous to the islands. There may be thus white, coloured, or black creoles; but the term is generally restricted to those of European descent. The term *coloured* is applied to those who are of a mixed race, partly European and partly African. The word *mulatto* is popularly used to denote all such, although technically it refers to persons descended from parents, one of whom is purely white, and the other purely negro. The various gradations of coloured blood range from all but perfect white to all but perfect black. The original inhabitants found by the Spaniards in the northern islands were a timid, gentle race, who all perished in a few years.

Digitized by Google

between Martinique and Porto Rico; and the diocese of *Nassau*, including the Bahamas, and Turks and Caicos Islands.

JAMAICA.

Situation, Size, &c.—Jamaica, the largest of the British West Indian Islands, is the only one of the Greater Antilles belonging to England. It measures about 160 miles in length from east to west, and has an average breadth of from 30 to 40 miles. Its area is about the same as that of Norfolk. The general appearance of the island is extremely beautiful, and the coast abounds in good harbours.

By far the greater part of the island is covered with wild wood and jungle. The most striking features as one approaches it are—on the north, gentle hills and vales covered with rich verdure; and on the south, abrupt precipices and inaccessible cliffs, over which streams frequently project themselves into the sea. Indeed one of the characteristics of Jamaica is the abundance of its rivers.*

Surface, Climate, and Productions.—A chain of mountains, known in the centre of the island as the Blue Mountain Range, runs through the country from east to west, widening out at its eastern termination by numerous offsets, so as to fill up the greater portion of that end of the island. The only navigable stream is the *Black River*, which enters the sea on the south-west coast. Not more than half the surface of the island is level. The largest plain lies in the neighbourhood of Kingston. The climate is hot, and in the low plains, where yellow fever is prevalent, unhealthy; but it is as healthy as possible in the hills at an elevation of above 2000 feet.

The mineral resources of the island are not great. Among them may be reckoned iron, copper, lead, zinc, cobalt, and manganese, besides a few mineral earths useful in the arts. The sugar-cane is the chief production of Jamaica; but one may travel for days in the country without seeing more than

---

* It is said that the original name of the island, *Xaymaca*, signifies "country of streams;" if so, the name is certainly not undeserved. This abundance of rivers, though it adds to the beauty as well as the fertility and healthiness of the island, adds also to the difficulties of locomotion. A recent traveller states that he had to cross one stream no less than 24 times in going from Kingston to the northern shore of the island.

Digitized by Google

a little growing here and there. The largest expanse of unbroken cane-fields is at the extreme south-east of the island. The exported produce consists chiefly of sugar and rum, which may be regarded as the staples of the island. The article next in importance is coffee. Pimento or allspice, logwood, arrowroot, and ginger, are also exported, but not in quantities to make them of much national value. It is hoped that cotton will soon be reckoned among the valuable exports of the island, as its cultivation has been again entered upon by a cotton company recently established.

Native fruits are abundant. It is common for a garden to contain cocoanut-palms, breadfruit-trees, oranges, mangoes, limes, plantains, avocado pears, and a score of other kinds of fruit-trees, all of luxuriant growth and of considerable size and beauty. The forests abound in valuable and various kinds of timber; more than 250 varieties of useful and ornamental woods from Jamaica were shown in the International Exhibition of 1862. At the same time many varieties of cotton and some new vegetable oils were exhibited. Cotton was found in Jamaica 350 years ago, but its cultivation was neglected for that of sugar. The plant is perennial in the island, and there are many trees now bearing cotton which were planted forty years ago.

Towns, Population, &c.—Jamaica is divided into three counties—Surrey, in the east; Middlesex, in the centre; and Cornwall, in the West. Its chief town is *Kingston*, on the south coast, with a fine harbour, and 35,000 inhabitants; but the seat of government is *Spanish Town*, a small and unimportant place. The roads throughout the greater part of the island are very bad indeed. Jamaica is under the authority of a Governor and Council, and an elected House of Assembly. The population of this as of the other West Indies is broadly divided into whites, coloured persons, and negroes.

There are three little islands lying to the north-west of Jamaica, of the government of which they are dependencies. Their names are *Grand Cayman*, *Little Cayman* and *Cayman Brack*.

The present condition of Jamaica is anything but flourishing, owing to the want of labour. This, the fairest, the most extensive, the most attractive, and the most favoured by fertility and natural gifts of all the British West Indies, can now hardly be made to yield her natural produce. Her roads are almost impassable, her bridges broken down, and her coffee-plantations gone back to bush. Kingston Harbour, the seat of naval supremacy for Jamaica, and indeed for all the neighbouring British territory, is a large lagoon, formed by a long narrow bank of sand eight miles in length that runs parallel to the coast on which Kingston is built. The town is

Digitized by Google

described as the most deplorable that man ever visited, unless indeed Spanish Town be worse. The streets are unlevel, unpaved, and unlit; and the houses for the most part ragged and disreputable in appearance. On the northern coast are two towns, *Falmouth* and *Montego Bay*, both of which are apparently more prosperous than Kingston.

Government.—The government is carried on in a way in every respect similar to that of our own country. The Governor, who represents the Queen, has an Executive Council corresponding to our Cabinet, and also a Privy Council, the members of which are elected for life. Our House of Lords is represented by a Legislative Council, the members of which are nominated by the Governor, and sit for life. The House of Assembly consists of 47 members, the electors being all persons who pay either rent or taxes. The election rests consequently with the negroes, as there are only 16,000 whites, whilst there are 75,000 coloured and 350,000 blacks on the island.

The white population of Jamaica is stationary or decreasing, and is giving place to the coloured people, who are gradually gaining the ascendancy in the island. The latter practise as statesmen, as lawyers, and as doctors; and already fill the offices of coroner, judge, attorney-general, and prime minister in the colony.

History.—Jamaica was discovered by Christopher Columbus in 1494, on his second voyage to America. The first European settlement upon it was formed by the Spaniards in 1509, who used the island as a nursery for slaves. During the sixteenth and the early part of the seventeenth century, much fighting took place between the English and Spaniards, which was carried on by the latter with great cruelty. The Spaniards claimed to be masters of the whole of the West Indies, and would not permit the ships of any other nation to come near them. It was in breaking down this monopoly that Hawkins, Drake, and Raleigh made such inroads on the Spanish trade. Finally, to chastise the pride of Spain, and to revenge the wrongs which England had sustained during a long period of years, Cromwell sent a large force to the West Indies in 1655, by which Jamaica was captured. The Spaniards made but little resistance, and fled to the mountains. For some few years after this Jamaica had no regular government; but gradually the arrival of more settlers from England, especially of 2000 disbanded soldiers of the parliamentary army, the first British colonists, and soon afterwards of a body of 1500 royalists, tended to establish order; and in 1664 a legislative assembly was elected for the management of the colony. About this time Jamaica became a great resort of buccaneers. Like the rest of the West Indies, it was a slave colony; and from time to time, especially in 1691, and again in 1795,

Digitized by Google

the slaves, aided by the Maroons—*i. e.* the descendants of the Spanish negroes who lived in the mountains—revolted against their masters. In the latter year most of the Maroons were sent out of the island.

In 1834 slavery was abolished here as in the other colonial possessions of Great Britain. Since that time the value of land and other property has very much decreased, owing mainly to the idle habits of the negroes; but it is hoped that the turning-point for the better is now reached, and that Jamaica will again become prosperous.

THE BAHAMA ISLANDS.

Population, 40,000. *Area*, estimated at 5000 square miles.

Situation, Productions, &c.—The Bahamas are a scattered assemblage of some 500 rocks and islets lying to the north-east of Cuba, and of which only about 20 are inhabited. They are mostly long and narrow in form, curved towards the Atlantic Ocean, with their surface low and flat, and covered with a light sandy soil, and appear to be all, or nearly all, of coral origin. Their produce is very similar to, although their climate is more temperate than, that of the other West Indies. Many islands of the group are barren; but others are well wooded, and yield various kinds of timber adapted for ship-building as well as for the purposes of the cabinetmaker,—such as mahogany, satin-wood, Spanish oak, lignum-vitæ, and cedars and pines. Some of the southern Bahamas, especially *Turks Island* and *Caicos Island*, contain natural salt-ponds, from which large supplies of salt are procured. Wild hogs are common in the forests, and turtles abound on the shores.

The names of the principal islands are—Great Bahama, the most northerly of the group; Great Abaco; Great Inagua; New Providence; Eleuthera; San Salvador; Long Island; Acklin Island; Mariguana; Exuma; Caicos; and Turks Island, at the south-eastern end of the group. These islands are for the most part situate on two submarine tablelands known as the Great and Little Bahama Banks. In the channel between them the Gulf-stream flows at a rapid rate, making the navigation at times dangerous, and causing not unfrequent shipwrecks. The exports consist of dye-woods, mahogany, turtle, cotton, and fruits. No country is better adapted for the growth of cotton than the Bahamas, and formerly the exports of this article were large; but the almost exclusive use of American cotton caused its cultivation to decline.

Digitized by Google

Population.—The inhabitants are very mixed in race, and have been entirely introduced since the English first colonised the islands in 1629, the aborigines having been totally removed by the Spaniards to work in the mines of Cuba. The Bahamas are under the administration of a Governor, who is assisted by a Council and House of Assembly. The seat of government is *Nassau*, on New Providence Island, a free port, and the see of a bishop.

The white inhabitants maintain themselves chiefly by ship-building, wrecking, turtling, and fishing; and the negroes are employed as labourers, and also in salt-raking.

Government.—For the purposes of government, Caicos and Turks Island have been placed under a separate jurisdiction, and as they are not of sufficient magnitude to entitle them to a resident governor or lieutenant-governor, the administration is carried on by the President of their Council of Government.

History.—San Salvador or Cat Island, one of the least considerable of the group, was the first land seen by Columbus in his adventurous voyage in search of a New World in 1492. The first British settlement was made in New Providence in 1629, but it proved unsuccessful, as did several subsequent ones, owing to the frequent inroads of Spaniards and French. In 1703 they captured New Providence, which subsequently became a favourite resort of buccaneers. A regular government was formed in 1718, but the islands were subsequently captured by the Spaniards in 1782. They were retaken in the following year, when the claim of England to hold them was recognised by treaty; and our possession of them has been since undisturbed.

THE LEEWARD ISLANDS.

Situation and Character.—This name, it has been already stated, is commonly, though erroneously, applied to that portion of the Lesser Antilles extending between Porto Rico and Martinique. The islands in this northern part of the chain are not so beautiful, so greenly beautiful as those further south. The mountains of Nevis are certainly fine as they are seen from the sea, but they do not seem to be covered with that delicious tropical vegetation which is so lovely in Trinidad.

Government.—The British territory in the group comprises a portion of the *Virgin Islands*, *Anguilla*, *Barbuda*, *St. Christopher*, *Nevis*, *Antigua*, *Montserrat*, and *Dominica*. The Go-

Digitized by Google

vernor of Antigua is Governor-General of these islands, and they are also included in the diocese of Antigua.

St. Kitts and Dominica are each under a Lieutenant-Governor. The Virgin Islands, Nevis, and Montserrat, being too small for such a distinction, the senior member of the Council of Government for each acts as president.

Of the British Virgin Islands the most important are—*Tortola*, the seat of government, *Virgin Gorda*, and *Anegada*. In the first-named, which is the largest, is the capital *Roadtown*. Their produce is chiefly sugar and cotton.

History.—A party of Dutch buccaneers occupied these islands in 1648. They were expelled by a party of English of the same description in 1666, who pretended to take possession of them for the crown of England. They were first really settled by a body of British emigrants from Anguilla, in 1694, and their possession by Great Britain has not since been disputed.

Anguilla and a few rocks and islets around it, lying to the north of St. Kitts, have recently acquired importance in consequence of the curious discovery that the material of which they are principally composed is rich in phosphate of lime, an extremely valuable manure.

There is every reason to hope that they will afford a supply of this valuable earth, which may render the British farmer to a great extent independent of the guano from Peru, now so largely imported.

Barbuda is a low, level, and fertile coral-island, only part of which is under cultivation. Its abundant woods are well stocked with deer and game; and the inhabitants breed horses, cattle, and sheep, for use in the neighbouring islands. There is no harbour, nor any town in the island, which is entirely a private estate, in the possession of the Codrington family, and independent of the government of the Crown. No sugar is grown on the island.

St. Christopher, otherwise called *St. Kitts*, lies due south of Anguilla. The island exports sugar, rum, molasses, coffee, arrowroot, and tobacco. Its chief town is *Basseterre*, with 6000 inhabitants.

History.—St. Christopher was discovered in 1493 by Columbus, who bestowed upon it his own Christian name. It was the first of all the British settlements in the West Indies, and therefore merits more truly than Nevis the title "Mother of the English Caribbean Islands." It was taken possession of so early as 1623 by a party of English under Sir Thomas Warner, an enterprising London merchant;

Digitized by Google

when three Frenchmen were found already settled there. Another party of French soon arrived, and in 1627 the French and English agreed to occupy different parts of the island. After two years, the latter were expelled by a Spanish fleet, but the island was restored to England in 1667. It was subsequently more than once retaken by the French, and finally ceded to Great Britain at the Peace of Utrecht in 1713.

NEVIS is a single cone-shaped mountain, surrounded by a margin of low land, and lies at the south-eastern end of St. Kitts, about a mile and a half distant. Its capital is *Charlestown*. Nevis was colonized by Sir Thomas Warner in 1628, and has ever since been a recognised dependency of Great Britain. It was captured by the French in 1706, restored in 1713, again captured in 1782, and finally restored in 1783.

ANTIGUA lies due south of Barbuda, and is approached on the south by an excellent and picturesque port called *English Harbour*, one of the finest harbours in the West Indies, and formerly much used by the British navy. Its surface of hill and dale is varied by green fields and gorgeous flowers. More than half the island is covered with sugar-plantations, and the chief exports are sugar, rum, and molasses. The climate is dry and healthy, but the island frequently suffers severely from hurricanes and also from want of water. Its capital, *St. John*, is situate about 12 miles from English Harbour.

Antigua was, and is still, an island of some importance. It is said to have been the first of the West Indian colonies which advocated the abolition of slavery, and to have been the only one which adopted complete emancipation at once without any intermediate steps.

History.—This island was colonized in 1632 by Sir Thomas Warner, when a few English families took up their residence in it, and began the cultivation of tobacco. In 1666 it was seized and ravaged by the French, but was restored to England at the Peace of Breda, 1667, and has never since been retaken.

MONTSERRAT, a small island lying to the south-west of Antigua, is said to be less prosperous than St. Kitts or Nevis. Considerably more than half the surface is mountainous or very barren, but the soil at the base of the mountain-slopes produces excellent coffee and sugar. Its capital is *Plymouth*. Montserrat was first occupied by Sir Thomas Warner, in 1632. It was captured by the French in 1666 after they had reduced Antigua, but was finally restored with that island to Great Britain in 1667.

DOMINICA is perhaps the most picturesque of the Leeward Islands, and contains an extensive fresh-water lake in the interior, situate on the summit of a high volcanic hill. Its

Digitized by Google

capital is *Roseau*, on the south-west coast, a most desolate-looking town, with a population entirely French in manners, religion, and language.

The island produces more coffee than sugar, and its coffee estates have been of late most thriving. This is owing in great measure to the large demands of the neighbouring French island of Martinique, in which some disease has attacked the coffee-plants.

History.—Dominica was first seen by Columbus on Nov. 3rd, 1493, and was thus named by him because that day was Sunday. The island was, for many years after its discovery, a source of dispute between the kingdoms of England, France, and Spain; but at last, in 1759, it became by conquest the property of Great Britain, and was formally ceded to England by the treaty of Paris, in 1763. It was invaded by the French in 1778, when they held it for five years, and again attacked by them in 1805. Since that year, however, its occupation by Great Britain has been undisturbed.

THE WINDWARD ISLANDS.

Situation, Government, &c.—This name, it has been already stated, is commonly, though erroneously, restricted to that portion of the Lesser Antilles lying to the south of Dominica from Martinique to Trinidad inclusive. Nearly the whole of them, except Martinique, belong to Great Britain. The most important of the British islands in this group are—*St. Lucia*, *St. Vincent*, *Barbados*, *Grenada* and the *Grenadines*, *Tobago*, and *Trinidad*. They are all, except Trinidad, under the general authority of the Governor of Barbados, and are included in the diocese of the bishop of that island. St. Lucia, St. Vincent, Grenada, and Tobago are each under a Lieutenant-Governor, who, like the Governor of Barbados, is assisted by a Council and a representative House of Assembly, just as our Queen is assisted by a House of Lords and a House of Commons.

St. Lucia* is an island French in its language, manners,

* St. Lucia and Dominica suffer in various ways by comparison with the neighbouring French islands of Martinique and Guadaloupe, and more especially so do their respective capitals. The difference in the neatness and comforts apparent in the French islands over those in the English, is, no doubt, mainly owing to the different way in which the English and French populations, whether Creoles or Europeans, regard the islands in which they live. The French colonists con-

Digitized by Google

religion, and laws. Being held as a colony conquered from the French, it is presided over by a semi-military Governor, with the aid of a Council, and has no House of Assembly. The island has a wealthier and more flourishing appearance than Dominica. Its capital, *Port Castries* on the north-west coast, though anything but prosperous itself, is very much so in comparison with Roseau, the capital of Dominica.

St. Lucia is noted for its snakes, which are said to be so abundant that one cannot walk ten yards away from the road without being bitten. Its elevated surface is described as a chequered scene of sombre forests and fertile valleys, smiling plains and towering precipices, shallow rivers and deep ravines. Not more than one-tenth of the island is under cultivation.

History.—Settlers from England first occupied St. Lucia in 1637, but were expelled by the natives the following year. The island was subsequently colonized by the French, and was given up to France in 1763. Captured by the English in 1779 it was taken and retaken, in all, seven times during the war with France at the end of last century, but finally remained in the hands of the English.

St. Vincent is a green and pretty island, tempting to look at, situated immediately south of St. Lucia. It it said to be healthy, having in this respect a much better reputation than its northern neighbour. The appearance of its capital, *Kingstown*, is much better than than that of either Castries or Roseau, though it is by no means equal to that of the capital of either Martinique or Guadaloupe. Its present productions are sugar, rum, molasses, arrowroot, and dye-woods.

History.—St. Vincent appears to have remained for many years after its discovery unsettled by Europeans. In 1672 England laid claim to it, as well as to St. Lucia, Dominica, and Tobago. Until 1748, when these islands were declared neutral ground, great contentions prevailed between England and France respecting them. At the peace of 1763, St. Vincent was allotted to Great Britain, by which

---

sider the West Indies their home, and cast no wistful looks towards France: they marry, educate, and build in and for the West Indies, and for the West Indies alone. The English, it would appear, on the contrary, consider their islands as mere temporary lodging-places, to be left as soon as sufficient wealth has been acquired for them to return to England, their home. The word "*home*" with them, and with English Creoles too throughout the West Indies, always refers to England, and never to the country in which they live. For the same reason it is that they use English dishes and English cookery, and despise, or affect to despise, their own productions. No meal appears to be complete without beef-steaks and onions, beer and cheese, potatoes and pickles, all, or all that can be, obtained from England.

Digitized by Google

country it has been held, except from 1779 to 1783, when it was in the hands of the French. In settling it the English met with great obstruction from the native Indians, who more than once threatened to expel them from the island. The contest ended in the expulsion of the Indians themselves, at the close of last century, to Ruatan, in the Bay of Honduras.

Barbados, eastward of St. Vincent, and lying out considerably to windward, is the advanced post of the Lesser Antilles, the richest and most valuable of all the British West India islands except Jamaica, and especially famous for the production of sugar. Owing to peculiar circumstances, labour has always been abundant here, and hence this island has suffered much less than any of its neighbours from the changes of the last 30 years. Barbados has, however, one terrible drawback, in the awful hurricanes with which it is from time to time visited, and which commit frightful devastation. Its climate is considered the healthiest in the West Indies. The capital is *Bridgeton*, on the south-west coast.

Barbados is not picturesquely beautiful, as are almost all the other Antilles, and therefore presents but few attractions to strangers. It has not the thick tropical foliage, nor the wild grassy dells, which are so abundant in the neighbouring islands. Almost every inch of it will produce sugar-canes, and, where possible, is made to do so. A little arrowroot and aloes are also raised. There are several bituminous springs in the island, which yield the substance known as Barbados tar. On the eastern side is Codrington College, an institution for educating clergymen for the Church of England in the West Indies. Bridgeton is much like a second or third rate English town, having none of the general peculiarities of the West Indies except the heat; Its streets though narrow, irregular, and crooked, contain some respectable well-to-do shops.

History.—Barbados is supposed to have been first discovered by the Portuguese in the course of their voyages from Brazil, as early as 1526. It was then totally uninhabited. The first English who are known to have visited it were the crew of a ship going to Guiana, who, finding the island still uninhabited, took possession in the king's name. No settlers, however, occupied it till 1624, when a few adventurers, under the patronage of the Earl of Marlborough, to whom James I. had granted the island, arrived there. The island held out a long time for King Charles I. against the Parliamentary forces; and after the Restoration received special marks of the royal favour.

Grenada, a very lovely island, was once of much greater importance than it is now, having had other islands subject to

Digitized by Google

it, and its governor having been supreme instead of, as now, subordinate. Its capital, *St. George*, too, was at one time more flourishing than at present; and is still more like a goodly English town than most of those in the smaller West India Islands, being well built, containing large and comfortable houses, and possessing a good harbour. Grenada produces fruit in greater perfection than almost any other part of the West Indies.

The *Grenadines*, a pretty, though not very productive cluster of little islands between St. Vincent and Grenada, are included with the latter island under the Governor of Grenada.

History.—Grenada, discovered by Columbus in 1498, appears to have been first settled in 1650 by Frenchmen, who speedily accomplished the conquest of the island by a course of atrocious massacres, and kept possession of it till 1762, when the English took it. Although ceded to Great Britain by France in 1763, the French recaptured it in 1769, and held it till 1783, when the island was finally subjected to the English crown.

TOBAGO lies considerably to the south-east of Grenada, and to the north of Trinidad. Its surface is agreeably diversified, and the abundance of springs upon the island tends much to its healthfulness. Tobago, too, lies out of the track of those hurricanes which usually prove so destructive in many of the other islands. Its capital is *Scarborough*.

History.—Tobago, first discovered by Columbus in 1498, was colonised in the early part of the seventeenth century both by English and Dutch; but in 1634 the Spaniards attacked the settlers, who deserted the island. In 1657 the Dutch occupied it a second time, but were driven out in 1677 by the English and French; and until 1763 the island was unoccupied. In that year Tobago was made over to England, and it continued in our possession till 1781, when a French squadron seized it. In 1793 a British force recaptured the island, which has since remained a dependency of the Crown of England.

TRINIDAD, the southernmost and largest of the Lesser Antilles, lies across the delta of the Orinoco. Its western side projects out two horns, so as almost to reach two different parts of Venezuela, the portion of sea thus nearly enclosed between the island and the mainland being called the *Gulf of Paria*. A ridge of mountains, the continuation of the Sierra Merida of Venezuela, crosses the northern end of the island; and two others, parallel to this, also run from east to west, one in the centre and one in the south. The two valleys thus

Digitized by Google

formed are fertile grassy plains (savannahs, as they are called), while the hills are for the most part covered with dense forests of red cedar and other trees. Recently the island has been surveyed with reference to its mineral productions, and the result has shown that it contains a good supply of coal. The climate is healthy, and the soil fertile.

The greatest curiosity in the island, perhaps, is a *pitch lake*, situated on the south-west coast, about a mile-and-a-half in circumference, and of unknown depth. About 40 miles from the lake are some curious mud-volcanoes.

The staple products of the island are sugar, molasses, rum, and cocoa. A little cotton is also grown, and it is hoped the cultivation may be extended. Several exotic products have been successfully introduced, especially the Brazil nut, cloves, nutmegs, pepper, ginger, and vanilla.

The two chief towns, indeed the only towns of Trinidad, are situated on the Gulf of Paria. The larger, called *Port of Spain*, which is the seat of government, is situated on the northern part of the coast; and the smaller, *San Fernando*, on the southern part. The population consists mainly of negroes, together with a few whites chiefly of Spanish descent.

The inhabitants of the island for the most part speak French, and not English or Spanish as we might imagine. Trinidad once belonged to France; and is still in manners, habits, language, and religion, French. Large portions of Trinidad are but imperfectly known, and consequently the cultivated districts at present are not very extensive. The colony is, however, in a very prosperous condition, owing to the introduction of labour. During the last 15 years, from 15,000 to 20,000 immigrants, chiefly Coolies from Madras and Calcutta, have been brought into the island, and now constitute above an eighth part of its entire population. The imports have been consequently vastly increased, and the exports nearly doubled.

Port of Spain is a large town, well laid out, with the streets running at right angles to each other, as is common in new towns. Being adapted for a much larger population than that now existing, it is at present straggling and full of gaps; but the time will come before long when it will be the best town in the British West Indies. The country immediately around is magnificent, and the views from the town itself are very lovely. San Fernando is surrounded by the best sugar district of the island.

The form of government is different from any which have been adopted in our other West India Colonies. As Trinidad was conquered, the people of the island are not allowed to

Digitized by Google

have so large a share in their own management. They have no voice in the Legislative Council or Representative Assembly, but are directly under the Crown, in which the legislative power mainly rests. The Governor is assisted by an Executive Council, composed of the chief Crown officers in the island.

History.—Trinidad, discovered by Columbus in 1498, was taken possession of by Spain in 1588, and was held by that country till 1797, when it was captured by an English force under Sir Ralph Abercromby. Since that time the population and prosperity of the island have much increased.

BRITISH GUIANA.

Population, 150,000. *Area*, 80,000 square miles.

Situation.—This colony lies on the north-east coast of South America, and is bounded by the ocean on the north, Dutch Guiana on the east, Brazil on the south, and Brazil and Venezuela on the west. It extends along the coast of the Atlantic from the mouth of the Orinoco eastward to the river Corentyn, a distance of 300 miles; and stretches southward about 400 miles to within 1° of the equator, where it is backed up by unknown mountains and Brazilian forests.

Surface, Climate, and Productions.—The whole of the northern portion of Guiana is a low flat region, scarcely raised above the sea-level, and in some parts even below it; and has been formed by the mud brought down by the Amazon and other rivers. The southern half is a series of terraces, gradually rising towards the interior of the continent, and separated by parallel mountain ranges, running east and west across the country. The chief river of the colony is the *Essequibo*, east of which are the *Demerara* and the *Berbice*.

The highest mountain range is called *Sierra Pacaraima*, the chief summit of which, *Mt. Roraima*, is upwards of 7000 ft. high. The southern boundary is partly formed by the *Sierra Acaray*, in which the Essequibo rises.

Guiana, or at least its northern half, is "a vast extent of flat mud, the alluvial deposit of mighty rivers which," as it has been playfully said, "have been scraping together earth in the wild unknown countries of their upper courses, and bringing it down conveniently to the sea-board, so that the world might have sugar to its tea." There is no

Digitized by Google

limit to the fertility of the country, if only labour be applied to it. The present cultivated districts are simply those skirting the sea-board and the river-sides, and there is hardly one that has not a water frontage. The whole of the mud beyond the present very limited sugar-growing limits, is covered with timber.

The climate of Guiana, which is strictly tropical, is said to be extremely pleasant in the dry season, and on the whole not unhealthy for Europeans. Two rainy seasons occur in the year; one from December to February, and the other from June to August. The great production of Guiana is *sugar*, with which it has capabilities for supplying the world, labour only excepted. It also exports timber, coffee, cotton, tobacco, ginger, indigo, rice, maize, and other tropical produce, for yielding which the soil and climate are admirably fitted; indeed, the supply of first-class timber, of the kinds known as Mora and Greenheart, which are peculiarly adapted for ship-building, is inexhaustible. Guiana at present beats all the neighbouring British colonies in the quantity of sugar and rum prepared, but Jamaica rum still stands first as to quality. Nearly all the species of wild animals, birds, and reptiles of tropical America are found in it.

The present success of Guiana is owing to the introduction of Coolie* labour. For some years past, labourers have been brought in freely both from India and China. Women are coming as well as men, and if the present rate of immigration is continued, it will not be long before negro labour is displaced, or at least made of secondary importance. The machinery and appliances of the colony much exceed anything in the British West Indies. There is steam on every estate, whereas in Barbados, the most flourishing of the islands, not one planter in fifteen has any steam on his estate. The quality, too, of Demerara sugar is much better than of that from Barbados.

Almost the entire carriage of goods in the colony is by water; not only from the sugar-works to the town, but also from the field to the

---

* The Coolies are immigrants from India. They are engaged in their native land to work for five years, during stipulated hours, and at stipulated wages; and at the end of that period they are entitled to a free passage home. They greatly excel the negro in intelligence, and partake in a limited degree of his physical abilities in a hot climate. They are distributed among the planters by the Government according to the application of the former, their means of providing comfortably for labourers, and their willingness and ability to pay the cost of immigration by yearly instalments. Coolies have similarly been introduced into Trinidad, and with like successful results. In confirmation of this it may be stated that the exportatian of sugar from Guiana and Trinidad now exceeds the amount exported in the time of slavery; whereas in most, if not all, the neighbouring British colonies it has considerably decreased.

Digitized by Google

works, and even from field to field. The whole of the settled country is intersected by drains, which are necessary to carry off the surface waters, and parallel to the drains are canals. So numerous are works of this kind that there are upwards of 50 miles of cuttings, it is said, to be kept in order on some estates. The labour of making them was originally performed by the Dutch.

Towns, Government, &c.—But a very small portion of British Guiana is yet settled; the districts that are so are already covered with a network of sluices and embankments. The colony is divided into three counties,—*Essequibo*, *Demerara*, and *Berbice*. Its capital is GEORGETOWN, near the mouth of the Demerara, with 25,000 inhabitants. *New Amsterdam*, near the mouth of the Berbice, is the other chief settlement, and there are numerous smaller ones along the coast. The population, exclusive of the native Indians, whose number is not estimated, amounts to about 150,000, the greater portion of whom are freed negroes. English Coolies and Portuguese emigrants from Madeira constitute the remainder.

The colony is under a Governor named by the Crown, and an elected House of Assembly. It is also the see of a bishop of the Colonial Church of England.

The form of government is somewhat peculiar. There are two Houses, an upper and a lower, but they do not act separately as ours do. The former, called a Court of Policy, consists of 5 official and 5 elected members, and acts rather as a privy council to the Governor than as a legislative body. The non-official members are chosen by a body of men called Kiezers, who are appointed electors for life by the tax-payers, and the Governor has a veto on their choice. The six members of the Lower House are assembled only for the purposes of taxation, and are then joined with the Court of Policy. The result is that the legislative power is, practically, almost entirely in the hands of the Crown, and consequently Guiana is better governed than almost any of the West Indian colonies.

History.—Guiana was originally discovered by the Spaniards, but was first made known to Europeans through Sir Walter Raleigh, who visited it in 1595. English buccaneers soon resorted to the coast, and by about 1634 a colony of some 60 persons, partly French and partly English, was established on the Berbice and Surinam rivers cultivating tobacco; but in 1667 the English settlements were given up to the Dutch who had already extensively colonized the country. Their settlement of Berbice was founded in 1627. That of Demerara was of later growth; while that of Essequibo, a dependency of the latter, was not formed by them till 1742.

At the end of last century, when the Dutch and French made com-

Digitized by Google

mon cause against England, Sir Ralph Abercromby attacked and took possession of the whole province of Dutch Guiana; but it was restored in 1802, after a large amount of capital had been expended upon it by the numerous British settlers who had flocked to it. It was retaken, however, in 1803, and that part of it west of the river Corentyn (the present British Guiana) was retained by the Treaty of Paris in 1814, since which time it has continued in our hands. Up to 1831 Berbice and Demerara had each a governor, but in that year they were united under one government called British Guiana, and the three provinces ranked subsequently as counties.

BRITISH HONDURAS, or BELIZE.

Population, 26,000. *Area*, 37,000 square miles.

Situation, Character, and Productions.—British Honduras lies on the southern part of the eastern coast of the peninsula of Yucatan, in Central America, at the head of the Bay of Honduras. It is bounded on the east by the sea; on the north and west by Yucatan, a province of Mexico; and on the south by Guatimala. Its boundary on the west has never been determined. The coast is low and swampy for a few miles inland, but the interior is hilly. Its principal river is the *Belize*.

There is, perhaps, no country which, considering its extent, contains so many natural channels of communication in the shape of broad navigable rivers, tributary streams and fresh-water lagoons. From the northern boundary, the river Hondo, to the southern, the river Sarstoon, there are 16 wide, deep rivers, which can be navigated by large vessels for a considerable distance inland. The seasons, as in most tropical countries, are two in number: a wet one, lasting from June to February, and a dry one from March to June; the former, however, is far from being continuously wet, there being several intervals of fine weather. From the number of splendid rivers which it contains—from its stores of vegetable wealth of spontaneous growth—from its immense forests, in which most valuable woods are found—and from the richness and variety of its soil—British Honduras may be pronounced as of almost equal importance with any British colony.

The trade of this settlement has hitherto been confined almost exclusively to mahogany and logwood, no cultivation having been carried on for the purpose of producing other articles of commerce. So much has this been the case, that it has been said the soil cannot produce anything else. Nothing

Digitized by Google

can be further from the truth. A large portion of the country is still covered with forests of fine timber, yielding numerous valuable woods; but there is plenty of open land of the most fertile description, and wanting only labour to make it as productive as any region of the earth.

Of late the cultivation of the sugar-cane has been commenced, and has answered most thoroughly. One planting of the cane will last 12 years, whereas in the most flourishing of the West Indies it will last only 2 years. The country is equally suited for the cultivation of cotton, tobacco, coffee, and rice. The cocoa-nut palm can be grown to any extent, yielding an oil in great request for the manufacture of soap and candles; but a far more valuable tree is the Cahoun palm, the fruit of which yields an oil far superior to cocoa-nut oil. No less than two-fifths of the total area of Honduras is covered with this palm. The castor-oil plant grows wild, so also do the plants yielding ipecacuanha, sarsaparilla, india-rubber, and indigo.

Cochineal, indigo, and sarsaparilla, are already exported from Belize; but the first comes entirely from Guatimala, the second from San Salvador, and the third from the Republic of Honduras; though they might all be produced equally well in our own territory.

Of animal substances, which may be ranked as commercial products, may be mentioned turtle, tortoise-shell, the roe of the callipever (equal in all respects to the roe of the sturgeon), and conches for the manufacture of cameos.

Towns.—The capital is *Belize*,* at the mouth of the river Belize, the centre of trade for the settlement. *Corosal*, further north, is a rising town. The greater portion of its inhabitants are descendants of those originally introduced as slaves.

History.—Honduras was discovered by Columbus in 1502, and was subsequently claimed as part of the territory of Spain. In the early part of the seventeenth century numbers of English buccaneers had settled here for the purpose of cutting logwood. Soon a very profitable trade in that article sprang up with England, and by the middle of the century English logwood-cutters had succeeded in firmly establishing themselves in the country. The Spaniards made many ineffectual attempts to drive them out, and a warfare was carried on with varying success for more than 100 years. Treaties between

* The word *Belize* is usually stated to be a corruptian of *Wallis*, the name, it is said, of a Scotch pirate, famous in buccaneering days for his exploits in the neighbourhood of the town so called. There is no evidence, however, that such a person ever existed. The name of the town comes from that of the river on which it stands; and the name of the river is derived, probably, from that of an Indian deity to whom a temple was erected on the banks of the stream.

Digitized by Google

England and Spain, acknowledging a qualified right of the logwood-cutters in Honduras, were signed in 1670, 1783, and 1786; but on Spain again declaring war in 1798 the country was finally taken possession of as British territory. In 1862, British Honduras, which had previously existed as a settlement only, and a dependency of Jamaica, was declared a colony of Great Britain.

THE FALKLAND ISLANDS.

- *Population*, 500 settlers, besides natives. *Area*, 6000 square miles.

Situation, Character, and Climate.—The Falkland Islands are a little compact group, lying in the South Atlantic Ocean, about 350 miles east of the Strait of Magellan; and comprising two principal islands, viz., East and West Falkland, together with some 200 islets. The shores are rocky and much indented, and some of the inlets form capital harbours. The capital of the colony, and the only town yet formed, is *Stanley*, on East Falkland; a free port, and an important whaling-station.

The great value to England of the Falkland Islands arises from their position in the route of vessels rounding Cape Horn, whether to or from the Pacific Ocean. In fact they form the only harbour of refuge and victualling station for vessels making those voyages without deviating from their course.*

The temperature is more equable than in England, but is not sufficiently high in summer to ripen either grain or fruit. Trees will not grow, for the same reason; but various valuable kinds of grass grow luxuriantly. The islands appear to be admirably suited for grazing, and for that only. Pigs and rabbits, and numerous species of birds, are plentiful throughout the islands; and in East Falkland there is a large number of wild oxen and horses: indeed horned cattle form the only product for which the islands have been celebrated.

History.—These islands were discovered in 1592 by Davis, an English voyager, and were subsequently claimed for the Crown of England, in right of prior discovery. Both French and Spaniards afterwards settled there, and no steps were taken to assert the right of England till 1765. This claim was disputed by Spain; but in 1770 the sovereignty of Great Britain over the Falklands was secured by treaty.

---

* It has been recently shown by experience that vessels can reach home from the Falkland Islands in the same time that they can from Rio Janeiro, where ships from the Pacific are accustomed frequently to put in. Were these islands used instead of Rio, the whole time of the voyage to the latter place from them, three weeks might be saved.

Digitized by Google

COLONIES IN AUSTRALASIA.

AUSTRALIA.

[Name signifying the *Southern* Land.]

Population, 1,100,000. *Area*, 3,000,000 square miles.

Situation.—AUSTRALIA is an immense island in the southern hemisphere, equal in area to about four-fifths of Europe. It is a compact mass of land, having its greatest length from west to east, in which direction it measures about 2400 miles; and an average breadth from north to south of about 1200 miles. The sea which bounds it is called, on the north and west, the *Indian Ocean*; on the south, the *Southern Ocean*; and on the east, the *Pacific Ocean*.

The various terms which geographers have employed to designate Australia show how perplexed they have been to describe it properly. Strictly speaking it is an island, but from its immense size it may fairly be designated a continent. Australia is placed between the parallels of 10° and 40° S. lat., and between the meridians of 110° and 155° E. long. It corresponds therefore in latitude with that part of Africa lying south of the Congo. India, China, and Persia lie between similar parallels in the opposite hemisphere. The northern part of Australia lies about 4000 miles south-east of India, and 4000 south of China; Western Australia is 5000 miles east of the Cape of Good Hope; and New Zealand is 500 miles west of Cape Horn. The voyage from England round the Cape to Melbourne, situate at the south-eastern end of Australia, is reckoned 14,000 miles in length.

Coast-line.—On a map of Australia the most prominent natural features of its coast-line are seen to be—*Cape York*, the *Gulf of Carpentaria*, and *Cambridge Gulf*, on the north; *North-west Cape*, *Shark Bay*, and *Cape Leeuwin* on the west; the *Australian Bight*, *Spencer Gulf*, the *Gulf of St. Vincent*, *Port Phillip*, and *Wilson Promontory*, on the south; and *Capes Howe* and *Sandy* on the east.

Besides the above there is a multitude of smaller openings, capes, and promontories round the coast. In general the outline of the continent is bold, and is characterized by the absence of large indentations. The length of coast-line has been computed at not less than 8000 miles, thus giving one mile of coast-line to about 370 square

Digitized by Google

miles of area, the same as in North America.* A large portion of it, however, particularly along the north-eastern side of the island, and the Australian Bight, is what is called "iron-bound." The northern extremity of Australia is separated from New Guinea by the channel called *Torres Strait*, which, like the north-eastern coast, abounds in coral reefs, and is highly dangerous for navigation. Tasmania is separated from its southern extremity by *Bass Strait.*

Political Divisions.—For convenience of reference it may be worth while here, before describing further the natural features of Australia, to name the five political divisions or colonies into which the continent has been divided. These are—*Western Australia, South Australia, Victoria, New South Wales,* and *Queensland.*

WESTERN AUSTRALIA is all that part of the island west of 129° E. long.; SOUTH AUSTRALIA is south of lat. 26°, and between long. 129° and 141° E. VICTORIA is south of the Murray River, and east of 141° E. long. NEW SOUTH WALES lies to the east of South Australia, and north of Victoria. Its northern boundary, which commences on the coast at *Point Danger* (lat. 28°), runs in a westerly direction to the *Darling*, after which it is formed by the parallel of 29° S. lat. QUEENSLAND lies to the north of New South Wales, and east of the meridian of 138° E. long.

Mountains.—The mountain ranges of Australia, so far as they are at present known, are all on or near the coast. The principal one forms a continuous belt of highland, which runs along the entire eastern coast of the continent from Bass Strait to Torres Strait, and frequently rises into a well-marked mountain-chain. Not only is this the longest range in Australia, but it is also the one in which the highest summits of the continent are to be found.

In Victoria, besides this eastern coast-chain, there are many short ranges all running north and south, among which may be mentioned the *Pyrenees* and the *Grampians.* In South Australia there are also numerous ranges of hills, all running in a direction from north to south, the most continuous of which is one 400 miles in length, stretching northwards from Cape Jervis along the eastern side of the Gulf of St. Vincent and Spencer Gulf, to beyond the parallel of 30°, where it terminates in Mount Hopeless.

In West Australia the hills, as exemplified in the *Darling Range*, similarly skirt the coast, and run north and south.

---

* See *The World*, chap. iv. § 8.

Digitized by Google

They are, however, less elevated than those on the eastern side of the continent, and rarely exceed 1000 feet in height.

Various names are applied to the eastern coast-range in different parts of its course. In Victoria it is called *Australian Alps*, and further north, in New South Wales, it takes the name *Blue Mountains.* The *Liverpool Range*, a great spur extending for some distance east and west, marks the northern limit of the name Blue Mountains. North of the Liverpool Range the coast-chain is much less developed, and the highland thence through the rest of New South Wales and Queensland is at present known by the somewhat indefinite name of the *North Dividing Range.* Bifurcating in the south of Queensland, one branch of this range of highland runs northwards towards Cape York, and the other in a north-westerly direction towards the Gulf of Carpentaria, forming the watershed of the rivers flowing into the Gulf on the north, and of the affluents of the Darling on the south. It is not improbable that the great highway between India and Australia will follow this range, a great portion of which consists of open forest-land fit for pasture.

It is a remarkable fact that there is no important line of highland running in a direction from east to west known in the whole of Australia, unless it be in that portion of the continent at present only very imperfectly explored, lying between Cambridge Gulf and the Gulf of Carpentaria on the north.

The highest measured peak of the Australian Alps is *Mount Kosciusko*, 6500 ft. above the sea-level. Its summit, even at this moderate elevation, is much above the snow-line; and the higher portions of the chain are covered with snow. Some loftier peaks have been discovered further south, in Victoria, near the source of the Mitta Mitta, a tributary of the Murray; and two of them have been named *Mount Hotham* and *Mount Latrobe* respectively.

The Blue Mountains are on their eastern side precipitous and inaccessible in character, towering up almost like a wall, and presenting cliffs so steep, and separated by such dreadful abysses, that the chain was long considered absolutely impassable. It was not till 1813 that a route was discovered across them into the interior.

Rivers.—A large number of rivers are met with on the coast of Australia; but few have yet been discovered which bear anything like a proportion to the size of the continent. Indeed, from the extensive exploration which has recently been made right across the interior, it may safely be affirmed that no large rivers exist. The largest river-basin in Australia is that of the *Murray*, which, with its tributaries, takes the drainage of a large portion of Queensland, the whole of the interior of New South Wales, and the north of Victoria.

The Murray rises in Mount Kosciusko, and flows for the greater

Digitized by Google

part of its course in a westerly direction, turning suddenly southwards, however, about 200 miles from its mouth, and flowing into Encounter Bay. At its mouth it forms a shallow lake (Lake Alexandrina), from which it passes to the ocean by a channel scarcely navigable.

The Murray forms the entire northern boundary of Victoria; its tributaries on the left bank, therefore, all rise in that colony. Though comparatively small they are important streams; the chief of them being the *Mitta Mitta*, the *Ovens*, the *Goulburn*, the *Campaspe*, and the *Loddon*. On the right bank its two chief tributaries are the *Murrumbidgee* and the *Darling*, which drain the southern and northern parts respectively of the interior of New South Wales. The Murrumbidgee is formed by numerous streams rising in the Australian Alps, and flows generally in a westerly direction. Its upper course is thickly wooded, but its lower is a mere swamp. The river enters the Murray after a course of 1000 miles, but before doing so is joined by the *Lachlan*, a tributary almost as large as itself, but unnavigable.

The Darling is a highly important river, draining an area as large as Austria, and extending over 10° of latitude. Its upper course is formed by the junction of a very large number of streams, among which may be named the following, all flowing to the north-west or west,—the *Bogan*, the *Macquarie*, and the Castlereagh, Peel and Gwydir coming from the Liverpool Range. On its right bank it receives by numerous channels a stream called by various names, but in its upper course, west of Brisbane, known as the Condamine. This stream collects the waters of a large area in the south of Queensland. The Darling flows for 600 miles, after the Bogan joins it, without receiving another tributary, unless, indeed, the waters of the Warrego reach it, which is not proved. In 1859, Mr. Randell, starting from near the confluence of the Darling and Murray, went up the Darling in a steamer to a point 2400 miles above the mouth of the Murray, and 1800 above the junction of the Darling and Murray, thus proving the river navigable throughout almost its whole extent.

The most important of the numerous smaller rivers around the coast will be mentioned under the colonies in which they occur. One of the chief of them, known as the *Victoria*, which flows into Cambridge Gulf, on the north-west coast, does not come into the limits of any of the colonies.

The Victoria was long ago discovered and proved to be navigable. In 1856, it was explored to its source, when the country on both sides of it was found to be well watered, and specially fitted for pasture, and therefore suitable for permanent settlement. In 1861 Stuart approached within 90 miles of it from South Australia, thus showing the practicability of a route between India and Adelaide by way of the Victoria. It is hoped that before long a new colony may be established in the valley of this river.

Digitized by Google

Climate.—As the continent of Australia lies entirely in the southern hemisphere, its seasons at any period of the year are exactly the reverse of our own. Our spring is autumn for the Australians, and our summer is their winter. Of course, the country being much nearer to the equator than Great Britain, it has a much higher temperature.

In its northern half the seasons depend very much on the monsoons which occur within the tropics. Over the southern half of the continent the prevalent winds are westerly, and the rains occur during the colder season of the year, which is more like a wet English summer than a winter in our sense of the term. Speaking generally, the climate of the settled districts may be described as dry and healthy. Three peculiarities may be noted, which may be considered as drawbacks on the otherwise pleasant climate of New South Wales, Victoria, and South Australia. These are: 1. The *long droughts*, which prevail sometimes for years together, causing great destruction to animal and vegetable life; 2. the *hot winds*, which blow from the interior; and 3. the sudden transition from heat to cold, which frequently takes place owing to changes in the direction of the wind.*

Vegetation.—The vegetation of Australia is of a strange and unexampled character. There are several entire orders of plants peculiar to the continent, and the genera and species of many other families of plants that grow elsewhere here assume new and singular forms.

The plants of Australia are, taken as a whole, novel rather than useful. Nearly all the trees are evergreens, the change of the seasons producing no apparent influence on the invariable olive-coloured tint of the Australian forests. The timber trees consist principally of what the colonists call wattles (*acacias*) and gum-trees (*eucalypti*). Some of these are very hard, and form excellent timber for ship-building, as

---

* The following table contains some interesting elements in connexion with the climate of various parts of Australia as compared with London:—

Place.	Latitude.	Mean Temp. Fahr.	Depth of rainfall in inches.	No. of rainy days in year.	Mean temp. of	
					Hottest month.	Coldest month.
London	51½° N.	50°	25	150	62°	39°
Sydney	34° S.	65°	60	160	74°	55°
Brisbane ..	28° S.	69°	43	108	79°	59°
Melbourne ..	37¾° S.	59°	30	130	68°	49°
Adelaide ..	35° S.	65°	20	120	73°	55°
Hobart Town	43° S.	54°	21½	140	63½°	46°

Digitized by Google

well as for other purposes useful and ornamental. Tree-ferns and nettles of a tree-like growth are not uncommon, and in the interior and the northern part palms are found. Vegetation is not arranged into zones in Australia as in the other continents, but is distributed around well defined centres according to the character of the soil. The continent produces hardly a single species of native edible fruit or plant capable of yielding a regular supply of food. All the principal food-plants and fruit-trees of Europe have been introduced, and are extensively and successfully cultivated in the different settlements.

Animals, &c.—The animal world in Australia is still more peculiar than the vegetable. The chief points to be noticed in respect to it are:—(1) the very small number of species or kinds represented; (2) the great scarcity of individuals representing those kinds; and (3) the anomalies in form, habits, and other particulars which many of these kinds present.*

Of about 2000 known species of mammals the fauna of Australia comprises only about 160. Of these no less than twelve-thirteenths belong exclusively to the country, only one-thirteenth being common to this and other continents. All the quadrupeds of Australia, with

---

* Before the continent of Australia was colonised in the way it is now, it used to be the fashion to describe it as *a land of anomalies*. Early colonists used especially to delight in making wonderful statements bearing out this description, and though there was a good deal of truth in the phrase, yet there was also a good deal of error, arising, not only from exaggeration, but also from the fact that the names of European plants and animals were misapplied in Australia to species of a totally different nature. "This is New Holland," says one, "where it is summer with us when it is winter in Europe, day here when it is night with you; where the barometer rises before bad weather, and falls before good; where the north is the hot wind, and the south the cold; where the humblest house is fitted up with cedar, the fields are fenced with mahogany, and myrtle-trees are burnt for firewood; where the kangaroo—an animal between the squirrel and the deer—has five claws on its fore-paws, and three talons on its hind-legs like those of a bird, and yet hops on its tail; where the mole lays eggs, and has a duck's bill; where there is a bird with a broom in its mouth instead of a tongue; . . . . . where the pears are made of wood, with the stalk at the broader end, and where the cherry grows with the stone on the outside." In the same spirit others have noticed that in Australia we find ferns, nettles, and even grasses growing to the size of trees; that many of its rivers run away from the coast towards the interior, and, after growing smaller and smaller, suddenly cease, or are lost in swamps; that its trees are evergreen, in spite of frost and snow; that birds run instead of fly, while some of its animals fly instead of run; that its beautiful flowers are almost scentless, its bees stingless, and its rich-plumaged birds songless, while here swans are black and eagles white; that the leaves of many of its trees are set edgeways instead of horizontally, and some of the trees themselves shed their bark instead of their leaves; that its grapes are nauseous and grow on bindweed, currant-bushes prickly, and gooseberries without thorns; while its honeysuckle has no odour, and its oak no foliage; and, lastly, not to swell the list too much, that while there is naturally a total absence of any native vegetable production fit for the ordinary food of man, the soil is capable of producing every variety of corn, fruit, or vegetable, whether European or tropical, which can be planted upon it.

Digitized by Google

two exceptions, the dog and the rat, are peculiar to it. Most of them belong to that singular order of animals scarcely found elsewhere, which is termed by naturalists *marsupialia,* because the creatures comprised in it are provided with a bag in which they carry their delicate young about with them, wherever they go. They comprise numerous species of kangaroo, ring-tailed opossums (phalangers), flying opossums or flying squirrels (petaurists), wombats, bandicoots, kangaroo-rats, and other animals of similar nature, almost all strictly nocturnal. The adaptation of the peculiar structure of these creatures to the country in which they live, where long periods of drought are not uncommon, where there are extensive tracts without water, and where there is always more or less difficulty in obtaining that necessary element of life, is worthy of notice. One of the most anomalous, and therefore deserving mention, is the water-mole or platypus (*ornithorhynchus*), which has the body and fur of an otter, with a bill like that of a duck, and at the same time lays eggs.

The birds of Australia, though scarcely so peculiar and anomalous as the quadrupeds, yet comprise many singular forms. Eagles, falcons, and various species of hawk, as well as owls of different kinds, abound throughout the continent; but vultures are utterly wanting. Cockatoos, parrots, and parrakeets are more numerous here than in any other part of the world; and many of them, like a bird called by the colonists, on account of its peculiar note, the "laughing jackass" (really a kind of kingfisher), have the endowment of being able to support life without a supply of water. The largest bird of the continent is the emeu, called also the Australian cassowary, a kind of ostrich, little inferior to the African ostrich in size. In fleetness it can outstrip the swiftest dog, and can kick with such violence as to break a man's leg. It is, however, easily tamed, and becomes as domestic as a dog. A great peculiarity connected with it is that the cock bird, and not the hen, hatches the eggs and takes care of the young. Several species of Australian birds do not hatch their eggs by sitting upon them, but collect heaps of decaying vegetable matter, in which they leave them to be hatched by the artificial warmth. Among such may be mentioned the brush turkey (*tallegalla*) of New South Wales and North Australia, the mounds of which contain the eggs of many birds, to the amount of nearly a bushel in each heap; the native pheasant (*leipoa*) of Western Australia, and the jungle-fowl (*megapodius*) of North Australia, mounds of which have been found measuring 150 feet in circumference, and 14 feet high. The gigantic crane, the beautiful mænura or lyre-tail, the black swan, and brilliantly variegated pigeons and doves, are other birds worthy of mention.

Reptiles are not abundant. Several kinds of snakes, some of which are venomous, are met with in different parts of the country. A species of crocodile or alligator frequents rivers along the western and northern coasts of the continent.

The surrounding seas abound with fish, which, however, do not in

Digitized by Google

most cases resemble those of Europe. Oysters are very plentiful, and good fresh-water fish are caught in some of the rivers.

Aborigines.—The natives of Australia, from their resemblance to the African negro, are commonly called *Australian negroes* or *Austral negroes*, though they are far inferior to the natives of Africa in every respect. They are divided into numerous tribes, who are thinly distributed over the surface of the country, and appear to have had one common origin. No estimate is made of their numbers; but they are believed to be gradually dying out before the advance of the white man. Several tribes have already wholly disappeared.

The general colour of the natives is an earthy black, or sooty brown. They have the flat nose, large nostrils, and thick protruding lip of the true negro, but their hair is generally long, and coarse rather than woolly. Their limbs, and indeed their whole bodies, are lean, utterly unlike those of true African negroes. They have no chiefs either elected or hereditary, government appearing to be patriarchal among them; the father having authority in the family, and the elders in a tribe. They have no permanent dwellings, and rarely wear clothes of any kind, except in the neighbourhood of white settlements, where they are compelled to wear blankets. Like all wandering savages, their senses are remarkably well trained and acute. Great efforts have been made to protect them, and to induce them to adopt settled and industrious habits, but without much success. Owing to the extreme scarcity of white labour consequent on the discovery of the gold-fields, stock-keepers were induced to offer good money wages to the natives to become shepherds and labourers, instead of giving them merely food and wages as was before common. The result has been highly beneficial, and large numbers are now regularly employed in various kinds of labour connected with sheep and cattle farming. A great change for the better appears to be coming over the natives, and both their disposition to work and that of the settlers to make use of their labour is increasing.

History.—It seems doubtful who was the first European discoverer of Australia. The first really authentic accounts which we have show that the northern and western sides of the continent were visited by Dutch navigators as early as 1616, if not in 1605; and from their subsequent extensive explorations of the coast in the seventeenth century, arose the name *New Holland*, until recently borne by the continent. The first Englishman that landed in Australia was a buccaneer, named Dampier, who visited the western coast in 1688.

Little or nothing of the eastern coast was known until the time of Captain Cook, who, in 1770, surveyed the greater

Digitized by Google

part of it. After the loss of our American colonies in 1783, whither prisoners under sentence of transportation had been previously sent, the neighbourhood of Botany Bay was, on Cook's recommendation, chosen as the site of a new penal settlement, and thither the first body of convicts sailed in 1787. Captain Phillip, the commander, not liking the bay, determined to land instead in Port Jackson. He did so, and in January, 1788, proclaimed the colony of New South Wales, fixing at the same time the site of Sydney. Since then exploration has progressed at a rapid rate. Among the most celebrated voyagers along the coast must be mentioned Vancouver in 1791, who first made known a large part of the south-west coast; and Flinders and Bass, who in 1798 discovered Bass Strait, and showed that Tasmania was not, as had been thought up to that time, part of Australia.

It was not till 1813 that a passage across the Blue Mountains from Sydney was found, and from that time may be said to have commenced the exploration of the interior. What is now the colony of Victoria was first settled as a district of New South Wales in 1835; South Australia was settled in 1836, and Western Australia as early as 1829. The history of the discovery of the interior is associated with a crowd of names: those of Oxley, Cunningham, Sturt, Eyre, Mitchell, Leichhardt, and, within the last few years, of Gregory, Stuart, Burke and Wills, Landsborough, and McKinlay being the most celebrated. In 1829 Sturt explored the course of the Murray and the Darling, starting from Sydney; and in 1844–5 made the first great attempt to penetrate the unknown interior. Setting out from Adelaide, he went northward as far as lat. 24½° S., long. 138° E., where, after suffering inconceivable hardships, he was compelled to turn back. In November, 1859, Mr. Stuart left Adelaide with the intention of crossing to the Gulf of Carpentaria. In lat. 19° S. he was stopped by the natives, and returned to Adelaide. In 1861 he started again over the same route, but although he got considerably further north than on his previous journey, he was unable (in lat. 17° S., long. 133° E.) to penetrate a dense forest which separated him from the Victoria River previously explored by Gregory, and in consequence he returned again to Adelaide. Meanwhile, in 1860, another expedition was fitted out in Melbourne under the command of Messrs. Burke and Wills. From a depôt established at Cooper Creek, near the N.E. corner of South

Digitized by Google

Australia, four persons succeeded in crossing the continent to the Gulf of Carpentaria, and in retracing their steps almost to Cooper Creek again. They were, however, in a state of such complete exhaustion, from fatigue and insufficiency of food, that three of them died; and the fourth was only saved through the kindness of the natives, by whom he was taken care of until recovered by an exploring party sent in search of them.

NEW SOUTH WALES.

Population, 350,600. *Area*, 300,000 square miles.

Situation.—NEW SOUTH WALES, the first, and for a considerable period the only European settlement in Australia, is now one of five flourishing colonies on the great island-continent. Its area is more than five times as large as that of England and Wales.

The present boundaries give it a coast line extending over 10°, from Cape Howe on the south to Point Danger on the north, and make it stretch back 500 miles in the interior. A very considerable portion of its coast is an almost continuous line of rocks, from 250 to 300 feet in height, but containing nevertheless many excellent harbours; among which are *Shoal Bay*, *Port Macquarie*, *Port Stephens*, *Port Hunter*, *Port Jackson*, *Botany Bay*, *Jervis Bay*, *Twofold Bay*, and *Sussex Haven*.

Rivers.—The colony is watered by many valuable rivers, such as the *Hawkesbury*, the *Hunter*, the *Manning*, the *Hastings*, the *Macleay*, the *Clarence*, the *Richmond*, and others on the eastern coast, besides the *Darling*, *Lachlan*, and other tributaries of the Murray in the interior.

It is a popular mistake to suppose that these rivers are worthless. They are for the most part certainly small, and so are the English rivers, compared with those of America. But they are valuable in many ways. The Clarence is half a mile wide, and navigable for sea-going steamers nearly 50 miles; while the Hunter and the Richmond are navigable for a still greater distance. Steamers trade regularly between the port of Sydney and the rising towns on the Hunter, the Manning and the Clarence; and the settlements on other coast-rivers are connected with the seat of government by sailing vessels regularly engaged in trade.

Surface.—The surface of New South Wales is unlike that of other parts of Australia. It is not uniformly hilly like Tasmania, nor a waterless plain like a great part of South

Digitized by Google

Australia. An elevated ridge with numerous spurs passes along the eastern side, enclosing a narrow belt of land 70 or 80 miles wide between it and the sea, in which district most of the settlements as yet exist. To the westward is an enormous plain of comparatively uniform surface.

The land in the colony, generally speaking, is better adapted for pastoral than for agricultural purposes. Of course there are numerous exceptions, and in many parts there are extensive tracts remarkable for fertility. In the north, for instance, through 4° of latitude at least, the soil and climate are admirably adapted for the growth of cotton, tobacco, the sugar-cane, and various tropical products. In the south, the Illawarra district and the Twofold Bay district are almost proverbial in Australia for the rich and productive character of their soil.

Minerals.—The mineral products of New South Wales are gold, iron, lead, zinc, copper, and coal. Even without gold, this colony would be one of the richest mineral districts in the world, possessing in various parts valuable mines of copper, iron, and lead, only awaiting easier modes of communication, and more abundant labour, to give their wealth to the world.

The principal gold-yielding districts of the colony are:—1. The upper valley of the *Macquarie*, in which are nine or ten gold-fields, the most celebrated being Ophir, Turon, and Meroo; 2. the *Abercrombie* district, in the valley of the Lachlan, a little south of Bathurst; 3. the *Peel River* district, just where that river leaves the Liverpool Range, containing eight or ten gold-fields; 4. the *Corawa* district on the Murray, a little below Albury. The total export of gold from the colony, during the ten years 1851–61, is valued at nearly 12,000,000*l.* sterling.

The limits of the great coal-field of the colony are at present imperfectly known. It is found to extend into Queensland on the north, and to re-appear in Tasmania on the south. The mines at present in operation, from twenty to thirty in number, are situate at or in the neighbourhood of Newcastle, at the mouth of the Hunter, 60 miles north of Sydney, and at Bellambi, in the Illawara district, 40 miles south of Sydney. Their total produce during the last twelve years has been nearly 2,000,000 tons, of which more than one-half has been shipped to India, China, and the neighbouring colonies. The further development of this mineral resource is only arrested by the want of miners; and were the want supplied, there is no doubt that in a few years the New South Wales coal-field would furnish gas and steam fuel throughout the Indian and Pacific oceans. It is in consequence of its coal-fields and magnificent harbours that Sydney has at present always taken the lead in steam navigation.

Copper-mines are numerous in the neighbourhood of Bathurst.

Digitized by Google

Agriculture, &c.—Of the whole of the Australian colonies, New South Wales takes the lead in pastoral industry. Sheep farming is the principal occupation of the colonists, and consequently the export of wool and tallow is very great.* Considerable attention is devoted to the culture of the vine, tobacco, and cotton in the colony, and also of various fruits, such as oranges, lemons, figs, bananas, guavas, peaches, nectarines, plums, pears, and apples. Wine of most excellent quality is produced in various parts of New South Wales.

For its vast amount of pastoral wealth Australia is mainly indebted to Captain Macarthur, who, in 1797, introduced into this colony, from the Cape of Good Hope, three rams and five ewes of pure Spanish Merino blood. A cross with the coarse-woolled sheep of New South Wales was obtained, and the result exceeded his most sanguine expectations. From the breed then established all the neighbouring colonies have been since supplied. The export of wool from Sydney to Great Britain in 1860 was 13,000,000 lbs. being 4,000,000 lbs. less than in 1859. Besides this a considerable quantity crossed the Murray for shipment at Melbourne and at Adelaide. The total export of wool, tallow, and hides from the colony, together with that of live stock sent to Victoria and elsewhere, gives considerably over 1,500,000*l.* as the average annual value of the pastoral produce of the colony during the years 1851–60, which sum exceeds that of all the other colonial produce, agricultural, manufacturing, and mining together.

In 1858, Mr. Ledger introduced a flock of alpacas into the colony, the climate and pastures of which have been found peculiarly suited to the increase of these animals. Hence it is hoped that before long alpaca wool will be reckoned amongst the most valuable exports of Australia.

Divisions.—The colony is divided into a large number of counties, the number of which is gradually increased as the

---

* The extent of the pastoral industry of New South Wales, as compared with the other Australian colonies, will be seen from the following table, which shows the live stock in those colonies at the end of 1860:—

Colony.	Sheep.	Cattle.	Horses.
New South Wales ..	6,119,163	2,408,586	251,497
Victoria	5,794,127	683,534	69,288
Queensland	3,449,350	432,890	23,504
South Australia	2,824,811	278,265	49,399
Tasmania	1,700,930	83,366	21,034
New Zealand..	2,803,000	193,000	
Grand Totals	22,691,381	4,079,641	414,722

Digitized by Google

outlying districts become settled. Its capital is SYDNEY. The other principal towns are—*Maitland* and *Newcastle* on the Hunter *Paramatta* at the head of Port Jackson, *Windsor*, and *Goulburn* on the Hawkesbury, *Albury* on the Murray, and *Bathurst* on the Macquarie.

Sydney is situated at the head of Port Jackson, one of the finest harbours in the world, and contains with its suburbs a population of 100,000. It is a thoroughly English town, handsomely laid out upon two hills, and ornamented with wide streets, capital buildings, numerous public drinking-fountains, and a large well-managed botanical garden. The city, too, is well drained, and lighted with gas. It possesses amongst its public institutions a mint, a university, a museum, an exchange, eight banks, and several daily newspapers. There are numerous manufactories of all kinds, as well as establishments for melting down tallow. The electric telegraph connects it with every important centre of population in the colony, and several lines of railway branch out from it to outlying towns.

Government.—The government of this, as of all the Australian colonies, is vested in the Crown, and is carried on by a Governor and two Legislative Chambers. The *Legislative Council*, nominated for five years, discharges the functions of our House of Lords; and the *House of Assembly* corresponds to our House of Commons. The Governor is aided by an *Executive Council*, consisting of the chief officers of state.

History.—The colony of New South Wales was founded by Captain Phillip as a penal settlement in 1788 (see p. 165), from which time to 1821 the convicts were employed in the construction of Government buildings, in making roads, and in laying out farms. In the last-mentioned year free emigrants began to settle in the colony, and then what is called the assignment system was introduced, that is, the convicts were parcelled out among those of the settlers who required servants, and were compelled to work for them; the settlers providing them with all necessaries, and in some cases giving them wages. This system continued until the year 1849, when the demand of the colonists that no more convicts should be sent to them was complied with.

In the early years of its history the form of government here was of an arbitrary character, the Governor being supreme. The representative principle was introduced in 1843; but it was not till 1855 that the present liberal constitution was conferred, giving the colonists full power over the land and the revenue. Two colonial sees of the Church of England

Digitized by Google

have been established—*Sydney*, which is also the metropolitan see of Australia, founded in 1836, for the southern, and *Newcastle*, founded in 1847, for the northern division, of the colony.

VICTORIA.

Population (in 1863), 550,000. *Area*, 87,000 square miles.

Situation.—VICTORIA lies south of New South Wales. It extends along the south coast of Australia westward from Cape Howe to the meridan of 141° E. long., which divides it from South Australia. The area of the colony is about the same as that of Great Britain.

The length of Victoria from west to east is about 500 miles, and the average breadth about 180 miles. The sea-coast has several great inlets, of which the most important are—*Port Phillip*, between 30 and 40 miles across, with an entrance of a mile and a half wide, *Western Port*, *Corner Inlet*, and *Portland Bay*.

Surface.—The surface of this colony is less flat than any other part of Australia. In the interior are two great watersheds—the Australian Alps in the east, and the Dividing Range running through the colony from east to west. North of the Dividing Range the soil is poor; but south of it, extremely fertile.

The agricultural qualities of different districts of the country vary greatly according to their relative position with respect to the mountain ranges; the land between the river Murray and the Dividing Range being as indifferent as that between the Dividing Range and the sea is good. Generally speaking the soil near the hills is poor and heavily timbered.

Rivers.—Of rivers the following may be mentioned:—the *Murray* and its tributaries, the *Mitta Mitta*, *Ovens*, *Goulbourn*, *Campaspe*, and *Loddon*, already described; the *Glenelg*, rising in the Grampians; the *Hopkins*, rising in the Pyrenees; the *Yarra Yarra*, flowing into Port Phillip; the *Latrobe*, flowing eastward from Mount Ararat; and the *Snowy River*, rising near the source of the Murrumbidgee.

The rivers of Victoria are less valuable than they would otherwise be, were the surface of the country less impervious to rain. The average rainfall of the colony is equal to that of England; but as it occurs for the most part on a rocky surface unsuited to its absorption, it passes rapidly to the sea, causing sudden floods in the rivers, and a

Digitized by Google

scarcity of water in the seasons when there is no rain, the beds of the watercourses being almost dry for a certain part of the year.

Minerals.—Mining in Victoria is at present confined almost exclusively to the extraction of gold from the auriferous rocks. The extraordinary richness of the gold-fields absorbing nearly all the available labour in the country, has to a certain extent prevented the exploration of the deposits of tin, antimony, iron ore, and coal, which are known to exist.

The gold-bearing rocks are estimated to extend over at least one-third of the colony. Though the discovery of gold was first made in New South Wales, the actual yield of Victoria has far surpassed that of the sister colony. Victoria is the great gold colony, and the digging of the metal and the providing miners with necessaries gives employment to many thousands of men and women of all trades and callings. The chief inland towns of the colony have arisen amidst the principal gold-fields, which are six in number, *viz.*, the *Ballaarat* district, west of Melbourne; the *Beechworth* district, in the valley of the Ovens; the *Sandhurst*, or *Bendigo* district, north of Mount Alexander; the *Maryborough* district, between the Avoca and the Loddon; the *Castlemaine* district, around Mount Alexander in the valley of the Campaspe; and the *Ararat* district, around Mount Ararat in the Pyrenees, to the north-west of Ballaarat. The total export of gold from the colony during the ten years 1851–61, as represented by the great pyramid at the International Exhibition of 1862, is valued at 104,650,000*l*. sterling.

Iron ore is plentiful in nearly all parts of the colony, and occurs in thick veins in the mining districts of Castlemaine and Sandhurst, where it is about to be worked. *Tin* ore is found in the Ovens district, in the beds of creeks and rivers, and a small quantity is exported annually. Coal-bearing rocks occupy in Victoria an area of 3000 square miles. They are found in the valley of the Latrobe.

Trees, &c.—The timber resources of Victoria are almost unbounded, although its forests are devoid of the larger coniferous trees. The largest timber is yielded by various species of Eucalyptus. More than 100 specimens of wood from this colony were shown in the Exhibition of 1862.

Victoria is not surpassed by many countries in the production of superior grapes for wine, which, at some future time, will certainly take a high place, not only for home consumption, but also for commercial export. The mulberry-tree, too, thrives admirably here, so that perhaps an important branch of industry may hereafter be opened in the production of silk. All the grain and root crops of England thrive equally well in Victoria.

Agriculture, &c.—Victoria might be described as having been chiefly pastoral till 1851; and indeed the colony owed its rise

Digitized by Google

solely to the number of its flocks and herds, for the rearing of which its climate and rich natural pasturage proved so admirable. It was the discovery of its gold-fields, however, that gave such vast impetus to the development of the colony, and placed it first in the Australian portion of the British empire.*

The live stock in the colony at the end of 1860 has already been given (see p. 168). In that year the exports of wool were 24,300,000 lb., worth 2,025,000*l.*; of tallow 788,000 lb., worth 18,300*l.*; and of hides and skins to the value of 144,200*l.* The collection of wools from Victoria at the Exhibition of 1862 was probably the finest colonial exhibition of the kind ever shown, both for strength of wool and its

---

* The enormous progress which has been made in the colony since its first establishment cannot be better illustrated than by comparing certain facts relating to 1851 with similar facts relating to 1860. This can be most concisely done in the form of a table, as follows:—

In	Population.	Revenue of Colony.	Acres of land under cultivation.	Value of Exports.	Value of Imports.	Tonnage of Ships.		Places of Public Worship.	Schools.
						In-wards	Out-wards.		
		£		£	£				
1851	77,300	486,000	53,000	1,042,000	745,000	118,000	98,000	39	129
1860	541,000	3,066,000	420,000	12,963,000	15,094,000	582,000	599,000	874	886

In addition to the above, it should be stated that during the period 1851-60 nearly 6,000,000*l.* have been expended in making roads and bridges. Several hundred miles of railway have been opened or are in course of construction; and nearly 200 miles of telegraphic communication exist in the colony. Melbourne is connected with Adelaide on the west, Sydney and Brisbane on the north, and Hobart Town on the south.

The history of the rise of Victoria transcends all that has been yet told of colonial enterprise. Even the records of California, or the Prairie towns of Illinois, show nothing which can compare with the suddenly acquired and vast material prosperity of Victoria. In 1850 Victoria, like Queensland and British Columbia, had no existence. In the few short years that have intervened since then, all these colonies have grown into distinct states. This one in particular contains such elements of wealth, such boundless mineral and agricultural resources within itself, as must in a few years make her the foremost and most powerful of the great cluster of our young Southern empires. When the Exhibition of 1851 was opened, the only habitation on the site of the present town of Ballaarat, was a fisherman's hut, built of slabs of wood, and roofed with bark. In a circle, having Ballaarat as its centre, with a radius of 40 miles, the population then did not exceed 500 persons, and consisted only of a few sheep-farmers and their dependents. The population of the same area, when the census was taken in 1861, was 106,000 persons, and at the same date the population of the town of Ballaarat was upwards of 22,000.

Digitized by Google

general condition and combing qualities. The alpaca has been as successfully introduced into this colony as into New South Wales.

Towns.—The capital is MELBOURNE, situate on the Yarra Yarra, near its entrance into Hobson's Bay—an arm of Port Phillip Bay. It is a well-built and rapidly-increasing town; the seat of a bishopric established in 1847; and containing with its suburbs a population of 125,000 people. *Geelong* is the second town in the colony. *Ballaarat*, *Sandhurst*, *Castlemaine*, *Portland*, *Buninyong*, and *Echucha*, are the other rising towns.

Melbourne is really a very handsome city. Its principal streets are finer and wider than almost any in London, and run mostly at right angles with each other. It contains numerous churches, banks, and Government buildings of an ornamental character, five or six museums, a public library of 40,000 volumes, and about a dozen hospitals, besides other benevolent institutions. A university, too, was opened here in 1855, the members of which are allowed to rank equally as regards precedence with members of the English universities. Three daily, and from thirty to forty weekly papers, besides numerous monthly magazines and other periodicals, are published in the city.

Geelong stands on the shores of the inlet of the same name, a western arm of Port Phillip Bay, about 45 miles from Melbourne. It possesses wide streets, good public buildings, and splendid warehouses; and is particularly famous for the export of wool, in which it has a larger trade than Melbourne. Large ships which cannot get up to Geelong unload at Port Henry, 10 miles down the bay.

History.—Port Phillip was first discovered in 1802 by Lieut. Murray, sent from Sydney to survey the coast; and in the following year the British Government determined to establish there a settlement for convicts. The spot fixed on was Nepean Point at its entrance; but as this site was soon found unfit for the purpose, the place was abandoned. It was not until 1835 that a permanent settlement was effected. In that year Major Mitchell explored the neighbouring country, and was so pleased with what he saw that he called it *Australia Felix*.

The first colonists came from Tasmania, and acquired land from the natives by purchase; upon which the Government of New South Wales immediately asserted its authority over the district. The town of Melbourne was founded in 1837, and two years later the territory round it was constituted a dependency of New South Wales. Since that time the prosperity of the district has been remarkable, and its progress both in population and trade unexampled for its rapidity. In 1850 it was separated from the older province, and formed into a distinct colony under the name VICTORIA, with a government resembling that of New South Wales. The discovery and subsequent development of its gold-fields, together with its great pastoral and agricul-

Digitized by Google

tural capabilities, have brought about results quite unparalleled in the history of colonization, and have placed Victoria in the foremost rank among England's colonies.

SOUTH AUSTRALIA.

Population (in 1863), 36,000. *Area*, 300,000 square miles.

Situation.—SOUTH AUSTRALIA lies along the Southern Ocean, immediately to the west of Victoria, New South Wales, and Queensland, from which it is separated by the meridian of 141° E. long. Its area is about half as large again as that of France ; but only a small portion of the colony is yet occupied.

The coast includes two large inlets of the sea, *viz.*, the *Gulf of St. Vincent*, and *Spencer Gulf*, besides several other fine natural harbours, of which the chief is *Port Lincoln*, at the western side of the mouth of Spencer Gulf.

There is an island 90 miles long by 20 broad, called *Kangaroo*, lying at the entrance of the Gulf of St. Vincent, and included in this colony. It is interesting as having been the site of the original settlement of South Australia, but is worthless, being covered with scrub, and possessing hardly any fresh water. The inhabitants, about 180 in number, live mainly on the produce of their gardens and by fishing.

Surface.—South Australia is not a mountainous country. The settled portion of it is confined chiefly to the eastern shore of the Gulf of St. Vincent, and a very large portion of the rest has been not at all, or only imperfectly, explored.

The structure of the settled part from west to east is as follows. Beginning from the Gulf of St. Vincent there is first a strip of flat land the, "Adelaide Plains," about four miles in width, extremely fertile, and cultivated in every direction. East of this is the Mount Lofty range of hills, fertile on its western slopes, in parts covered with dense forests of stringy bark, and on the lower slopes dotted with gardens, vineyards, and villas. Beyond the range is a hilly tract of country 20 miles in width, beautiful in appearance and fertile in character, and yielding large quantities of agricultural and horticultural produce. This gradually falls away into a wide belt of scrubby country that borders the Murray. Eastward of the Murray the land is good, and is occupied for pastoral purposes.

North of St. Vincent Gulf agriculture has scarcely been attempted, but large tracts of land are held upon squatting tenure and for pastoral purposes only. The district along the north-eartern side of Spencer Gulf stretches beyond Port Augusta to Lake Torrens, and the country

Digitized by Google

along the north-east coast of the Great Australian Bight, as well as extensive tracts inland, are occupied in this manner.*

Minerals.—It is mainly to its mineral riches that South Australia owes its prosperity and importance. Silver and lead mines were among the first opened, and subsequently tin, copper, plumbago, and iron, have been worked. Although a productive gold-field has still to be discovered, gold has certainly been found; and coal only is wanting to make the list as complete as it is valuable. The metal which has formed the great source of South Australia's mineral wealth, up to the present time, is copper, deposits of which occur here in an abundance as remarkable as that of gold in Victoria.

The first important copper-mine found was that called the *Kapunda*, 50 miles north of Adelaide. Until the recent discoveries at *Wallaroo* in the northern part of Yorke Peninsula, and the less proved, but perhaps not less valuable discoveries in the "Far North," as the district north of Spencer Gulf is called, the Kapunda mine occupied the second place among the sources of South Australia's wealth. The first place has been, and is still held by the *Burra-Burra* copper-mines, the vast productiveness of which is now a matter of almost world-wide celebrity. These mines are situated about 40 miles north of Kapunda, and therefore 90 from Adelaide. The annual yield of ore, for many years past, has averaged from 10,000 to 13,000 tons, yielding about 2500 tons of copper, worth to the colony at least 225,000*l.*

Whether the mineral wealth of the "Far North," or that of Yorke Peninsula will eventually prove most considerable, time must show. But at Yorke Peninsula the immense advantage has been enjoyed of ready accessibility to the sea-board.

Agriculture.—South Australia is pre-eminently the agricultural colony of Australia. For years past wheat-growing has been the pursuit with which the colony has been especially identified. At the Great Exhibition of 1851, South Australia took the prize for having grown the finest wheat in the world, and it beat all the other Australian colonies in 1862.

* Much light has been recently thrown on the character of the country lying north of Spencer Gulf; and the notion formerly prevailing that it was all barren and worthless has been for ever dispelled. Lake Torrens, which used to be shown upon maps as having a horse-shoe form, was laid down from theory rather than observation. The fact, as proved by recent explorations, is that there were many distant lakes to be seen in that direction, and mirage and imagination connecting them filled up the outline. *Lake Torrens*, as now depicted on maps, occupies only the southern portion of what was the western horn of the horse-shoe. To the north of it is *Lake Eyre*, and to the south-west *Lake Gairdner* and other lakes.

Digitized by Google

Grain crops far exceeding the wants of the colonists are raised, and large quantities of flour, fodder, and provisions, are annually exported to Victoria and New South Wales. The suitableness of a large part of the colony for wine-growing has already been fairly tested, and every year an increasing acreage is planted with vines. Its capabilities are further shown by the muscatel raisins, almonds, apricots, and other fruits shown at the Exhibition in 1862. South Australia is, too, a large wool-producing colony.

Divisions, Towns, &c.—The colony is at present (1863) divided into 17 counties. Its capital is ADELAIDE, situate on the river Torrens, about six miles inland from the Gulf of St. Vincent. The other most important places are *Gawler*, *Kapunda*, *Kooringa*, and *Angaston*, all to the north of Adelaide. By the constitution of 1856 the government is vested in the Governor appointed by the Crown, and two Chambers—the Upper of 18, and the Lower of 36 members—all elected.

Adelaide, situated in a fertile plain, possesses the elements of a regular and extensive town, and contains a large number of handsome public buildings, an excellent botanical garden, and an observatory. It is divided into north and south by the Torrens, which in the winter is a large stream, but in the summer contains only a small supply of water. A belt of park-land runs all round the city and between its two divisions. North Adelaide is the aristocratic, and South Adelaide the business part of the town. Its present population is about 25,000. Adelaide is the seat of a see of the colonial Church of England, which was established in 1847.

The principal port of the colony is *Port Adelaide*, situated in a creek perfectly sheltered from the sea, about eight miles from the capital, with which it is connected by railway. But a few years since its site was a mere swamp, covered with stagnant salt-water ponds. Now it is a business-like place, containing substantial wharves, warehouses, hotels, and other buildings. The chief of the other ports of the colony are—*Port Lincoln*, *Port Augusta*, *Port Wakefield*, *Port Robe*, and *Port Elliot*.

Members of the Legislative Council or Upper House are chosen by the whole colony, voting as one district, and the House cannot be dissolved; but one-third of its members retire every four years. Members of the House of Assembly are elected by universal suffrage, and the duration of the House is limited to three years..

The railways are at present Government undertakings. There are two of them in the colony; one from Adelaide to Port Adelaide, and the other from Adelaide to Kapunda. The latter will probably be continued to Kooringa, the town which has arisen in connection with the Burra-Burra mines. The electric telegraph is, too, wholly in the hands of the local Government, as are also the lines in the

Digitized by Google

neighbouring colonies. Nearly 1000 miles of telegraphic communication exist in the colony. Adelaide is connected with Brisbane by way of Melbourne and Sydney. The success which has attended the efforts of Stuart and Burke to cross the continent induces the belief that ere long there will be a line from Adelaide to the northern coast, in the neighbourhood of Cambridge Gulf (see p. 160). The value of the exports amounts to nearly 2,000,000*l*. annually, of which there is about a third each for copper-ore, breadstuffs, and wool.

History.—The colonization of this portion of Australia was determined on soon after Sturt's discovery of the Murray in 1831. An association was formed for the purpose in that year, and a charter obtained in 1834; but the first colonists did not arrive until 1836, and then went to the north-eastern side of Kangaroo Island. Later in the same year the neighbourhood of Adelaide was fixed on, and the colony proclaimed. South Australia suffered much in 1839–40 from the effects of over-speculation, and at length both Government and colonists became insolvent. The English Government, in 1841, advanced a large sum of money to help them, in consideration of which the settlement was transferred to the Crown. Prosperity was gradually established, and was hastened by the discovery of the Burra-Burra and Kapunda copper-mines. The gold-discoveries in the neighbouring colonies seriously affected the colony in 1851–2, by drawing away its entire labouring population; but prosperity once more returned, and South Australia is now in as flourishing a condition as New South Wales or Victoria. In 1843 the Governor was first assisted by a Legislative Council, and in 1850 the privilege of returning members to this Council was conferred on the colonists. A regular Parliament was granted in 1853, and the present Constitution definitely fixed in 1856.

WESTERN AUSTRALIA.

Population, 20,000. *Area*, 1,000,000 square miles.

Situation.—Western Australia includes all that part of the continent lying west of the meridian of 129° W. long. Of this vast territory but very little is known. The settled portion, commonly called the *Swan River Settlement*, lies towards the south-west, and is only about 400 miles long by 100 broad.

Towns, Surface, &c.—The capital is *Perth*, on the Swan River, situated about 11 miles from *Freemantle* its port, at the mouth

Digitized by Google

of the same stream. A few miles higher up than Perth is *Guildford*. "Over the Hills" are *York* and *Toodyay*; and on the south coast *Albany*, which is the coaling station of the Australian mail steamers.

This enormous tract of country, so far as it is known, has neither high mountains nor great rivers. A short distance from the coast the land rises into downs, which are for the most part very monotonous, and are broken only by a moderately high and occasionally steep and rocky range, called the *Darling Hills*. These hills, which are covered with magnificent timber, divide the colony into two districts, one on the coast, and one to the eastward, which has no better name than "The Country over the Hills." The former is densely wooded, and full of estuaries, lakes, small rivers and streamlets; the latter contains a large extent of arable land of excellent quality.

An extensive survey of the country north of the settled districts has recently been made, and the existence of large tracts of fine land, reaching eastwards to beyond long. 121°, in lat. 21°, has been demonstrated. This newly-explored region consists of a succession of terraces rising from the shore to lofty table-lands in the interior 2500 ft. above the sea, the highest point being Mount Bruce (4000 ft.); and comprises thousands of square miles of country fitted for grazing purposes, and large districts suitable for cultivation. Numerous new rivers have been discovered and named; among which may be mentioned the *Murchison*, *Gascoyne*, *Ashburton*, *Fortescue*, and *De Grey*.

Climate.—The climate of Western Australia is better, perhaps, than of any other part of the continent. Alternate land and sea breezes recur daily throughout the year; and hot winds, such as are experienced in the other Australian provinces, are unknown. The colony has very rich mines of copper and lead; and besides these, gold, silver, zinc, iron, and coal have been found. It abounds, too, with forests of the finest timber.

The principal timber-trees are of the Eucalyptus family. Those chiefly valuable for ship-building purposes are known by the native names *jarrah* and *tooart*, of which kinds it is said there is sufficient to build twenty British navies. Jarrah is remarkably durable, resisting alike decay, the white ant, the barnacle, and the augerworm. Hence it is largely used for railway-sleepers in India, and other parts of Australia. Sandal-wool, too, is a valuable article of export to Singapore and China. Wool, oil, and whalebone, besides a large number of horses for use in the Indian cavalry regiments, are other exports worthy of mention.

History.—The settlement of this colony was made in 1829, soon after Captain Freemantle took possession of the country in the name of George IV. In that year a body of

Digitized by Google

nearly 1000 persons settled along the banks of the Swan and Canning Rivers; but a series of disasters overtook them, in consequence of which numbers left the district, and went southwards, finally making a new settlement around King George Sound, while others left for Tasmania. Owing to the scarcity of labour, the colonists petitioned for convicts to be sent to them, and in 1850 Western Australia became a penal settlement. It is now the only part of the continent which still receives convicts under sentence of transportation.

QUEENSLAND.

Population (in 1861), 30,000. *Area*, 678,000 sq. miles.

Situation.—QUEENSLAND formed, until December, 1859, the most northerly portion of New South Wales, and was known as the Moreton Bay District. It is now separated from that colony by a line drawn from Cape Danger along the course of a portion of the Upper Darling, and then along the parallel of 29° N. lat. until it meets the boundary of South Australia.

North of South Australia the western limit is formed by the meridian of 138° E. long., and on the north and east the ocean forms the boundary. There exists a probability that the southern limit may be extended to the parallel of 30°.

The chief rivers are the *Brisbane*, flowing into Moreton Bay; the *Dawson*, the *Condamine*, and the *Burdekin* on the east coast; and the *Gilbert*, *Flinders*, and *Albert* flowing into the Gulf of Carpentaria.

Surface, &c.—The surface of Queensland, so far as the province has been explored, is of the same nature as that of New South Wales. Its climate, however, is considerably warmer, owing to the lower latitude; but is not subject to hot winds. The productive power of its soil is fully equal to that of the other Australian colonies.

The great extent of Queensland, both in latitude and longitude, enables its inhabitants to cultivate successfully those plants suited to various temperatures. English vegetables are found growing in close proximity with the pine-apple, banana, orange, and sugar-cane; and it appears certain that most, if not all, the vegetable productions of India and South America may be successfully and profitably cultivated.

Samples of cotton from various places of growth in Queensland, hundreds of miles apart, were shown at the International Exhibition of 1862; proving the fact that Sea Island cotton of fine texture and quality can be grown, not only in the neighbourhood of Brisbane, Maryborough, and Gladstone, but also upon the table-lands of the

Digitized by Google

colony, 200 miles from the coast. Arrowroot of the finest kind, sugar equal to the best Mauritius, and coffee and tobacco were also exhibited. Whatever may hereafter be the case, at present pastoral wealth is almost its only resource. Wool is the principal article of export; in 1861, no less than 5,000,000 lb. were sent from Queensland. Millions of acres of excellent pasture-land have been shown to exist in the west and north-west of the colony during the extensive explorations in 1861–2–3.

The wealth of the colony in forest productions is scarcely to be estimated; most of its varieties of timber being not only abundant, but of a kind exceedingly valuable for building and manufacturing purposes. Rich seams of coal, too, exist on the banks of the Bremer and Brisbane, about 30 miles above the capital.

The capital is BRISBANE, standing on the river of the same name, next in importance to which is *Ipswich*, 25 miles from Brisbane. *Drayton*, *Warwick*, and *Dalby*, are three among numerous other rising townships.

TASMANIA.

Population (in 1861), 90,000. *Area*, 24,000 square miles.

Situation.—TASMANIA, formerly known as *Van Diemen's Land*, is an island three-fourths as large as Ireland, lying about 120 miles south of the south-eastern corner of Australia, from which it is separated by a broad channel called *Bass Strait*.

The island is somewhat escutcheon-shaped, and possesses an indented coast-line, measuring from 800 to 900 miles in length. Around it are several smaller islands included in the colony: the most important being *Schouten*, *Maria*, and *Bruni* on the east; *Flinders*, off the north-east corner; and *King*, *Hunter*, and others off the north-west corner. *Norfolk Island*, too, in the Pacific Ocean, 1000 miles east of Sydney, is a dependency of Tasmania.

The coast is in many places rocky, with high promontories on every side. It contains some good harbours, among which are Port Dalrymple on the north side upon Bass Strait; *Macquarie Harbour*, and *Port Davey*, on the west; *Storm Bay*, on the south-east; and *Oyster Bay*, on the east coast.

Surface.—Tasmania is a mountainous country. Its interior forms a table-land 4000 feet above the sea-level, around and upon which rise numerous short mountain-chains. The island is far better watered than Australia, and abounds in excellent rivers, which serve to keep the face of the country fresh and green long after that of the neighbouring colonies is

Digitized by Google

parched with drought. Its western side is almost inaccessible from its scrub, hills, and marshes.

The mountains, a continuation of the Australian Alps, branch out in various directions through the island. The highest point is *Mount Humboldt*, 5500 high, situated near the western extremity of the interior table-land. *M. Wellington*, 4200 feet, rises just above Hobart Town.

The principal rivers are the *Derwent*, which rises in Lake St. Clair in the interior, and falls into the sea at Storm Bay, after a course of 130 miles, during which it receives many smaller streams from its north-west side; the *Huon*, which runs into the sea south of the Derwent, forming a large estuary at its mouth; and the *Tamar*, which, formed by the junction of two streams, the *North* and *South Esk*, falls into Bass Strait. There are besides numerous other small streams as well as lakes, the waters of which afford an amount of constant motive power for mills or for irrigation perhaps unequalled, within the same distance from the sea, in any country in the world.

Climate and Productions.—Tasmania is celebrated for the extreme healthiness of its climate; the temperature of which is mild, and unmarked by extremes of heat and cold. The summer heat is much like that of London, while the winter is not more severe than that of the south of France. The rainfall is moderate, and is fairly distributed throughout the year.

Coal and iron ore exist in nearly every part of the colony, and ores of lead and copper have been discovered in various districts; but hitherto not in any considerable quantity. Gold, too, has been found. The most important branches of Tasmanian industry are connected, however, with stock-rearing, agriculture, the forest, and the whale-fishery.

Wool is the staple production of the colony. Since the gold discoveries in Australia, a trade in articles of food and in horses, which is proving lucrative to the population of Tasmania, has sprung up between that island and Sydney and Melbourne. Owing to some cause, Tasmania has certainly been going backwards since 1856 as regards commerce; her exports of wool, hides, spermaceti, and other products having gradually and considerably decreased.

The principal timber-trees of the island, *viz.*, *blue gum*, *stringy bark*, *white gum*, *swamp gum*, and *peppermint-tree*, all species of Eucalyptus, furnish a hard, close-grained, strong timber, equal in most respects to oak; and besides these there is a very large variety of other ornamental and useful wood in abundance.

Tasmania has great capabilities for the growth of corn, and for many years subsequent to the settlement of South Australia was called the "Granary of Australia." Its grain and flour was declared, at the Exhibition of 1851, to be, after that of South Australia, the

Digitized by Google

best in the world; and it took a high place in 1862. All the English fruit-trees thrive equally well as, if not better than, in England.

The whale-fishery is an important item in Tasmanian industry, and from 25 to 30 vessels are engaged in it. The fishing-ground extends from the shores of the island to the antarctic regions. The export of oil and spermaceti in 1861 was worth upwards of 60,000*l.*

Towns.—Tasmania is divided into 12 counties. Its capital is HOBART TOWN, on the Derwent, with an excellent harbour, considerable trade, and a population of 23,000. *Launceston*, on the Tamar, is the second town in importance. *George Town*, at the mouth of the Tamar, and *Brighton*, near Hobart Town, are rising places.

Hobart Town is well laid out, containing wide streets and handsome buildings, as well as extensive manufactories, and establishments for various kinds of trade. Several excellent schools for children of all classes exist here. The country around is noted for its scenery.

History.—This island was discovered by the Dutch navigator Tasman, in 1644; it was not, however, known to be an island until 1797–8, when two Englishmen, Bass and Flinders, sailed round it. No Europeans settled here till 1803, when it was made a penal settlement. In 1804, a body of convicts, who had been sent the preceding year to Port Phillip, were transferred to this island, and formed the settlement of Hobart Town. The immigration of a free population commenced in 1816, since which time the island has been prosperous. In 1825 it was separated from New South Wales, and made independent. In 1842 a bishopric of the Church of England was founded here. The present form of government, originating in the Australian Colonies Act of 1850, came into operation in 1856, and is administered by a lieutenant-governor, and two elective bodies forming an Upper and Lower House.

NORFOLK ISLAND.

NORFOLK ISLAND lies in the Pacific Ocean, about 900 miles to the east of Sydney. Its surface, comprising an area of about 13 square miles, is level, well-watered, and fertile, and produces some valuable trees; one of which, now cultivated in our own gardens, and known as the *Norfolk Island pine*, is celebrated for its magnificent growth. Formerly there was an important convict establishment here. In 1855, soon after that was broken up, the island was given as a dwelling-place to the Pitcairn Islanders, descendants of the mutineers of the Bounty, whose story is well known; and they were transferred to it in a body, their numbers comprising some 180 persons.

Digitized by Google

NEW ZEALAND.

[Name given by Tasman, a Dutch navigator, who discovered it in 1642.]

Population, 170,000. *Area*, 100,000 square miles.

Situation, Size, &c.—NEW ZEALAND consists of two large and one small island, together forming a group lying about 1200 miles south-east of Australia. The former, separated from one another by Cook Strait, and called from their relative position *North Island* and *South Island*, very much resemble in shape (as we see them on the map) a boot turned upside down, broken in two just above the instep, and having the toe pointing towards Australia. The latter, called *Stewart Island*, separated from South Island by Foveaux Strait, is quite unimportant, being uninhabited, and, as some say, unhabitable. From the southern to the north-eastern end (the heel) of the colony the distance is about 900 miles, and to the north-western end (the toe) about 1100 miles; and the average breadth is about 100 miles. North Island is about half as large again as South Island, and the area of both together is estimated to be one-tenth greater than that of Great Britain.*

The islands lie between the parallels of $34\frac{1}{2}°$ and $47\frac{1}{2}°$ south latitude, and extend in a direction from north-east to south-west, so that their southern end projects towards Tasmania; but the shortest distance between the two countries is nearly 1000 miles. The position of New Zealand, almost at the very antipodes of Great Britain, is at the least striking. As Great Britain is situated in the middle of the greatest extent of land on the globe,† so New Zealand is placed almost in the midst of the greatest extent of ocean. Looking at its extent, climate, fertility, abundant coast-line and harbours, its adaptation for trade, and the bright future that would appear to await it in connexion with the development of Australia, it is not merely fanciful to regard New Zealand as meriting justly the title which is sometimes bestowed upon it as "the Britain of the southern hemisphere."

The *Chatham Islands*, lying about 400 miles to the east of Middle Island, are included in the government of New Zealand, which, accord-

---

* These islands were once designated *New Ulster*, *New Munster*, and *New Leinster* respectively: the names being selected by the first governor of the colony, an Irishman, because New Zealand, like Ireland, had no toads. Subsequently they were known as *North Island*, *Middle Island* and *South Island* respectively, but this mode of naming has ceased, too, to be current in the colony, and the islands are now called as in the text. *Stewart Island* received its name in honour of a settler, Stewart, who, in 1808 discovered that it was separate from South Island, and not part of it, as had been thought up to that time.

† See 'Physical Geography of England and Wales,' chap. i.

Digitized by Google

ing to a recent Act, is made to comprise all territories and islands between the meridians of 162° E. long. and 173° W. long., and between the parallels of 33° and 53° S. lat.

Coast-line.—The coast-line of North Island is remarkable for the very numerous inlets it contains. Among the largest of these are *Bay of Islands*, *Hauraki Gulf*, and *Bay of Plenty*, on the north; *Hawke Bay*, on the east; *Port Nicholson*, on the south; and *Kaipara Harbour*, on the west. The coast-line of South Island is but little indented, except at its northern end. The largest openings in it are *Blind Bay*, on the north, and *Pegasus Bay* and *Otago Harbour*, on the east. *Cook Strait* and *Foveaux Strait* have been already mentioned.

Besides these there are numerous smaller openings, in many cases important, since settlements have been made around them. The result is that the entire coast-line of New Zealand measures upwards of 3000 miles in length. Available harbours are not numerous, nor are they equally distributed around the coast. Except the excellent one of *Wellington*, in Port Nicholson, and the fair harbour of *Port Napier*, in Hawke Bay, there is no other in North Island at all secure until we get to *Auckland Harbour*, in Hauraki Gulf; and north of this are the equally magnificent harbours of *Wangari*, *Bay of Islands*, and *Mongonui*. On the west coast all have sand-bars at their entrances.

Most of the safe harbours in South Island are at its northern end. On the east coast the only ones offering safe shelter are *Akaroa* and *Otago*. *Bluff Harbour*, on the south coast, is good when it can be entered, and there are several safe ones in Stewart Island, to which vessels can run; but along almost the whole of the iron-bound west coast the island is open and exposed.

Surface—Mountains.—New Zealand may be called a wooded highland country, clothed with luxuriant evergreen vegetation. The centre of North Island is occupied by broad and lofty mountains, which send off spurs to the sea-coast wooded almost to their summits. The abrupt configuration of these renders the land communication between different parts of the island very difficult.

Many of the mountains of this island are covered with snow throughout the year. The highest summit in the central range is *Ruapahu*, an extinct volcano (9000 ft.), more than twice as high as Ben Nevis. Immediately to the north of it is *Tongariro*, an active volcano. The most noted summit in the island, however, is *Mount Egmont*, near its south-west corner, a snow-crested isolated extinct volcano of an almost perfectly conical form, shooting nearly 9000 ft. into the sky, its sides clothed with magnificent forests.

South Island is traversed throughout its whole extent by a

Digitized by Google

mountain range which runs nearer its western than its eastern coast. The range is known by various names in different parts of the island; its highest portion is called the *Southern Alps*, one of the summits of which. *Mount Cook*, 13,000 feet high, is the loftiest in New Zealand.

On the west coast this range rises almost abruptly, leaving a narrow strip of fertile land between its base and the sea. On its eastern side, where it falls equally abruptly, extensive and fertile grassy plains, many of which are excellent grazing districts, lie between it and the sea.

North Island is very volcanic in character. Three distinct lines of craters occur in it; one at the Bay of Islands, one at Auckland, and one from Mount Egmont to White Island, an active volcano in the Bay of Plenty. Near Auckland as many as 30 craters may be counted, but none whatever are known to exist south of Cook Strait. Slight earthquakes frequently occur in both islands.

Cook Strait is the centre of the earthquake region in New Zealand. Pieces of bitumen are washed on its shores after every severe shock. To show the frequency with which earthquakes occur, it may be stated that 55 shocks were registered at Nelson, during the years 1843-54, and 40 at Wellington during the years 1846-7. There appears to be a gradual rising of the whole group of islands; in many cases ground formerly under the sea is becoming dry. Port Nicholson in this way rose five feet during the years 1848-58. Grand and beautiful geysers ejecting water of 214° Fahr. temperature are found around Lake Rotorua, and Lake Rotomahana a little further south. Travellers may sail on the latter lake in hot water.

White Island is a little volcanic island in the Bay of Plenty, about 30 miles from shore, so heated that it is dangerous to walk over the surface. It takes its name from the volumes of steam emitted by a boiling spring in it, which reach a height of 2000 ft. in calm weather.

Rivers.—These are very numerous, but for the most part small, owing to the narrowness of the country and the position of the mountain ranges. Indeed, one of the most striking features of the colony is the abundance of water and water-power. The largest rivers are the *Waikato*, flowing from the centre of North Island towards the north-west, and the *Manawatu* and *Wanganui* flowing into Cook Strait.

The other important rivers are—in North Island, the *Thames* (or *Waiho*), flowing into Hauraki Gulf, and the *Hutt*, flowing into Port Nicholson; and in South Island the *Wairau*, flowing into Cloudy Bay.

The valleys of the numerous rivers in North Island, formed by the diverging mountain ranges, are at first gulleys, which open out as they approach the coast into fertile districts. *Taupo*, the largest lake,

Digitized by Google

out of which the Waikato flows, is 300 square miles in area, *i. e.*, as large as Huntingdonshire. There are besides, numerous smaller lakes in both islands, which beautify the country, and furnish abundance of small delicate fish. The country is studded with streams of the clearest and softest water, running over pebbly beds, and bearing a close resemblance to our trout and salmon streams. In general, however, they are mere mountain torrents totally unfit for navigation in consequence of their rapidity, the rugged nature of their channels, and the immense amount of shingle they have deposited at their mouths.

Sudden floods in all the rivers of New Zealand sometimes occur, occasioned by the melting of the mountain snow.

Climate.—The climate of New Zealand very much resembles that of our own country, with the exception of its being on the whole wetter and more windy, but at the same time warmer and subject to less variations of temperature. It might, in fact, be almost described as "the climate of England with half the cold of the English winter;" and its healthiness is proverbial. The actual amount of rainfall is greater than in England, but the number of rainy days is considerably less. There are few countries on the globe, however, where rain and wind are so uncertain.

Snow seldom lies on the ground at the level of the sea in North Island, and not very often in South Island; but all round the year the summit of Ruapahu, the highest mountain in the North Island, and the great mountain chains in South Island are covered with snow. Ice is occasionally seen in winter from one extremity of New Zealand to the other, but frosts are comparatively slight.

Productions.—(*a*) *Mineral.* Very little can be said yet as to the mineral-yielding capabilities of New Zealand, the colony not yet having been explored with that view. Coal, iron, gold, silver, lead, tin, copper, nickel, manganese, sulphur, and other valuable products have been discovered in various parts of the country almost without search, and many of them probably exist in abundance; indeed it has been said by many travellers that the islands teem with mineral wealth throughout.

Coal, required rather for steam purposes than for fuel (there being sufficient timber to supply the latter demand for generations to come), has been discovered and is worked near Auckland, and also near Nelson. Indeed the whole of the mountainous district at the north-west corner of South Island would appear to be stored with coal, if not with gold. *Iron* is more widely distributed. Some of the rocks on the Otago coast are so powerfully magnetic as to affect the compass, and the beach of Taranaki is for miles formed of the finest iron-sand.

Copper has been worked on a small scale at Kawau and the Great

Digitized by Google

Barrier islands, in Hauraki Gulf, and indications of it have been discovered near Nelson. *Gold-fields* exist and are worked in the provinces of Auckland, Nelson, and Otago; in the latter district, indeed, they almost rival those of Victoria and New South Wales. The quantity of gold exported from New Zealand up to September 1862 was 540,000 oz., valued at 2,087,000*l*.

(*b*) *Vegetable.* New Zealand is luxuriantly clothed with vegetation, and the native flora is characterised by the comparatively large number of species of trees and ferns, the scarceness of herbaceous and flowering plants, and the almost total absence of annuals. All the fruits, grains, and vegetables, and most of the timber-trees of England have been introduced, together with olives, figs, maize, tobacco, and other plants of warmer climates, and they thrive excellently. Hops, too, are successfully cultivated.

Like other countries in the southern hemisphere, its native flora is in a large measure peculiar. The natural order most fully represented is that of the ferns; and there is one species of palm. By far the most conspicuous plants in the colony are the *coniferæ*, to which order the timber-trees of the island chiefly belong, although the number of species is very small. The wood of one of them, the large and beautiful kauri or yellow pine, a tree found only in the north-west corner of North Island, is so valuable, that it formed one of the chief inducements to Europeans originally to visit the island. The red, and white pines, the iron-wood tree, and many others yielding fancy woods, are also extremely valuable. The trade in timber and ship-building furnish at present, next to wool-growing, the chief source of wealth to the colonists.

It is remarkable that, besides fern-roots, sea-weeds, fungi, and a few forest fruits, almost the only valuable native food-plants were the kumera, or sweet potato; and the taro, a similar plant. Among other peculiar plants the most important is that flag-like shrub, yielding what is known as *New Zealand flax*, an excellent material, equal to the best Russian hemp. The soft and silk-like fibre, so called, is derived, not from the stem, as in the European plant, but from the woody tissue of the leaves. Its cultivation has of late declined, owing to difficulties in its preparation. This plant was to the New Zealanders, before the introduction of blankets and European clothing, what various species of palm are to the natives of tropical regions, furnishing them with almost everything they wanted except food and timber. All the native trees and plants of New Zealand are evergreens, and as there is no autumnal fall of the leaf, the country appears almost equally green at all periods of the year.

(*c*) *Animal.* It is a remarkable fact that New Zealand, a large country abounding in forests, and having a climate peculiarly favourable to animal life, does not possess a single

Digitized by Google

native quadruped. Indeed two species of bat form the only land representatives of the great class of mammalia. The horse, ox, ass, sheep, and pig, as well as pheasants, partridges, and the common garden-bee, have been introduced by Europeans; and as the pasturage is admirably adapted for sheep, wool-growing is one of the chief pursuits of the settlers.

It is sometimes stated that the dog and the rat are indigenous, as Captain Cook found both those animals when he first visited the country in 1769, but it appears that they had been introduced by the natives, and curiously enough both are now extinct. The pig thrives most easily, feeding chiefly on fern-roots; and a large number have become wild in the forests. Thirteen species of sea mammals, including eight whales, two dolphins, and three seals, occur round the coasts, but are now rare, owing to their ruthless destruction in the breeding season.

Birds are not numerous, there being less than one-third the number of species found in England. Perhaps the most peculiar is the kiwi or apteryx, of which wingless and tailless birds there are three species, the largest being about the size of a turkey.

Neither serpents nor snakes inhabit New Zealand, but there are a few small species of lizards. Insects are about as common as in England, but there are neither hornets, wasps, earwigs, nor ants. The streams are almost as destitute of fish as the woods are of game, but immense shoals visit the bays and inlets during the summer. Eels are most common in the rivers; and there are small delicate fish in the lakes.

Population.—European settlers, or those of European origin, now considerably outnumber the native population; the former amounting at present to 114,000, and the latter to not more than 56,000. The New Zealanders, *Maories* (*i.e.* aborigines or natives), as they call themselves, are a very fine race of men, in personal appearance not unlike burly, well-bronzed gipsies. With scarce an exception, they are now all missionary converts, paying strict attention to the observance of Sunday. The majority of the young can both read and write their own language. The natives reside chiefly on North Island, there being probably not more than 2000 on South Island. It is to be regretted that this noble, teachable, and hopeful race of people appears to be steadily diminishing, though not at such a rapid rate as before the English settlers arrived. The European population increased fourfold in the ten years 1851–61, and the population of Otago, in 1861, exceeded that of all New Zealand in 1851.

The Maories belong to the Malay or brown variety of the human race, forming part of what is known as the Great Oceanic family which is spread over the East Indies, Australia, and Polynesia; and of which

Digitized by Google

they are the finest examples. When first known to Europeans they were destitute of almost all the accommodations of life, and were simply naked savages and even cannibals; eating not only their prisoners, but those slain in battle. The last cannibal feast took place in 1843. They have now made considerable progress in civilization; life and property being as safe among them as in England. To such an extent have they received Christianity that they have even founded among themselves a mission to send the Gospel to the islands near. Every Sunday may be heard native children assembled at church, neatly clad in English dresses, chanting the "Magnificat" and the "Nunc Dimittis" in English, and singing the "Evening Hymn" as well as any English congregation.

The Maories are not a conquered race, but have voluntarily placed themselves under British rule. By the treaty made with them by the Crown when New Zealand was proclaimed a colony, they surrendered the sovereignty of their country to the Queen, and the agreement has since been sacredly observed. They now have farms, mills, threshing-machines, and coasting-vessels of their own; supply the markets with various kinds of agricultural produce; and are in other ways amassing wealth; and many of them even keep banking accounts. No land has ever been acquired from them except by purchase, and in this way two-thirds of the country has become British. It is only in the northern island that land can now be acquired from the natives.

Political Divisions.—The colony is at present (June, 1863,) divided into nine provinces: four in North Island, viz. *Auckland*, *Taranaki*, *Wellington*, and *Hawke Bay*; and five in South Island, viz. *Nelson*, *Marlborough*, *Canterbury*, *Otago*, and *Southland*.*

The chief characteristics of the province of *Auckland* are its warm climate, its valuable kauri forests, the large number of natives inhabiting it, and the absence in it of great pastoral plains. The country is richly watered, and presents clusters of fertile valleys running inland from the numerous ports, estuaries, and river harbours, which are scattered along the coast-line. *Taranaki*, a small province at the south-west corner of North Island, has no harbours, lakes, or large rivers; but its soil, scenery, and climate are so fine that it is called the "Garden of New Zealand." *Wellington*, the most southern portion of the island, is a grazing province. Its position on the great sea-road of Cook Strait, and its possession of the magnificent harbour of Port Nicholson, as well as of two good rivers, are the leading points worthy

* Under a late Act of the General Assembly of New Zealand, called the *New Provinces Act*, any district of the colony possessing 500,000 acres of land, 1000 inhabitants, and a port of entry, may petition the Assembly to raise it into a province, and to entrust it with the management of its local affairs by an elective Provincial Council. It is therefore very probable that ere long several new provinces will be established by subdivision of some of the older ones.

Digitized by Google

of notice. The liability of the province to earthquakes is, however, a considerable drawback to its success. *Hawke Bay*, a province formed in 1858, lies on the eastern side of Wellington. A large proportion of its land is of great fertility, and is well suited for agricultural and pastoral purposes. *Nelson* occupies the greater part of the northern end of South Island. Its chief characteristics are—the comparatively small proportion of cultivable land, a profusion of deep-sea harbours, and indications of considerable wealth in coal, copper, iron, and gold. *Marlborough*, separated from Nelson in 1861, now lies on the eastern side of that province. Its northern end is a rugged, densely-wooded country, indented with numerous harbours of every size, shape, and capacity. *Canterbury*, occupying the central district of South Island, is characterised by its pastoral plains, the largest and best of the kind in New Zealand, covered with a perpetual herbage of various grasses, and possessing a good water-supply, but remarkable for the almost entire absence of wood. *Otago* lies at the southern end of South Island, and was settled in 1848 by a body of Scotch emigrants. This province contains some of the largest rivers of New Zealand, and some large and fertile pastoral and agricultural districts. It has of late become celebrated for its rich gold-fields, situated about 5° to the west of Dunedin. *Southland*, originally part of Otago, was constituted a separate province in May, 1861. It extends from the river Mataura to the Wairau, and comprises a large extent of pastoral and agricultural country.

Government, Towns, &c.—The general government of the colony is carried on by a *Governor*, who is appointed by the Queen, a *Legislative Council*, and a *House of Representatives*. Each separate province is governed by its "Provincial Council," composed of a superintendent and certain councillors elected by the province. All the towns of New Zealand are necessarily small at present, owing to the short time during which many of them have existed. The most important are AUCKLAND, the seat of government; *New Plymouth*, the capital of Taranaki; *Wellington*, and *Nelson*. There are five dioceses of the Church of England in New Zealand:—those, namely, of Auckland, Wellington, Nelson, Canterbury, and Waiapu.

The Legislative Council consists at present of some 20 leading colonists, chosen by the Governor for life; and the House of Representatives of some 40 members, elected by the people every five years. There is besides a ministry for assisting the Governor, which holds office so long as it can command a majority in the latter House.

Auckland, the capital of the colony, is admirably situated on an isthmus of low level land only six miles in width, on either side of which is an excellent harbour. The eastern one deserves, perhaps, to rank as the finest in New Zealand, and is the one chiefly frequented by shipping. The place is rapidly rising in importance, and numbers already above 10,000 inhabitants.

Digitized by Google

The other capitals of provinces are *Port Napier* in Hawke Bay; *Picton*, on Queen Charlotte Sound, in Marlborough; *Christchurch* in Canterbury, situated about eight miles inland from its harbour of *Lyttelton*; *Dunedin*, at the head of Otago Harbour; and *Invercargill* in Southland, a rapidly rising settlement on the south of South Island.

Auckland is the metropolitan see, and comprises that part of North Island lying to the west of the meridian of 176° E. long., and north of the parallel of 39° S. lat., together with the Chatham Islands. Waiapu, a native bishopric, comprises that part of North Island lying to the east of Auckland.

Trade.—Owing to the scanty population of New Zealand, its resources are at present but little developed. By position and natural advantages the country is the granary, dairy, farm, brewery, and orchard of the South Pacific. The most valuable exports at present consist of wool, gold, timber, flax, dairy and farm produce, potatoes, and oil, shipped principally to Australia and England; and the imports—of British manufactured goods, hardware, agricultural implements, together with tea, coffee, sugar, tobacco, wines, spirits, &c., imported mainly through the Australian markets, but partly also direct from England.* Railways are spreading in the colony, and will doubtless soon greatly contribute to an extension of trade. New Zealand has for some years been connected with Australia by an electric cable.

As a wool-growing country the whole of New Zealand ranks high. The wool possesses a peculiar softness which is prized by manufacturers, and is much longer in the staple than the wool of similar sheep in Australia. Wool, at present the most valuable, seems destined to remain the chief export to England. It has been stated by colonists that the country, though of comparatively small extent, is capable, owing to its superiority in soil and climate, of supporting more stock, and producing more meat and wool than the whole of Australia. For the same reason, tallow, hides, live stock, and ships' beef and pork, are likely to rank next to wool among the exports of the colony.

History.—New Zealand was discovered in 1642 by the Dutch navigator Tasman; but Captain Cook, in 1769, was the first European who landed on its shores. The latter sailed round North Island, entirely dispelling the notion, up to that time held in Europe since Tasman's days, that the islands were a portion of Australia; and took possession of the country in the King's name. The subsequent extension of the

---

* The exports in 1861 amounted to 1,370,000*l.*, two-fifths of which represent the value of the wool sent that year out of the colony; and the imports for the same year amounted to 2,494,000*l.* The export of wool from New Zealand has increased very rapidly of late. In 1855 it was only 1,447,000 lb., whereas in 1862 it was 8,509,000 lb.

Digitized by Google

South Sea whale and seal fishery to the neighbourhood of New Zealand, the establishment of a penal settlement at Port Jackson in Australia, and the desire of commercial men to obtain supplies of New Zealand flax, induced a few Europeans to overcome their dread of the cannibal propensities of the aborigines, and to settle on the coasts. Commerce gradually increased between the natives and Europeans, and to manage it additional numbers of the latter took up their abode among the New Zealanders, and learned their language. In 1787 New Zealand was included in a royal commission as part of the British dominions, and missionaries were first sent out to the islands in 1814. Runaway convicts from Australia wrought great mischief in the country; and in 1833 an agent was commissioned to decide the numerous disputes which had arisen amongst the settlers, and to maintain our relations with the native chiefs.

In 1839 the New Zealand Company was formed, which undertook to send out colonists to the country; and in the following year the English Government made a regular settlement at Auckland, formally appointing it a dependency of New South Wales. In 1845 the colony was separated from Sydney; and in 1852 a constitution was given to it, which came into force the following year, placing its entire government in the hands of the colonists. The discovery of the Otago gold-fields in 1861 caused a rush of emigrants to the colony, materially influencing its prospects for good. An open rupture between the natives and the colonists in North Island during the same year, arising from a dispute concerning the sale of some land to the latter, was the cause of considerable anxiety and expense; but it is hoped that peace is now permanently established.

THE AUCKLAND ISLANDS.

Population, about 200. *Area*, 190 square miles.

The only remaining British possession near New Zealand is that of the AUCKLAND ISLANDS, which lie about 180 miles to the south of that colony. They form a volcanic group, rising about 1300 feet above the sea, and are covered with trees and ferns. The climate is moist and cool. There are several good harbours, the chief of which are *Port Ross*, on the north side, *Rendezvous Harbour*, on the eastern side of Auckland Island, the chief of the group. Birds are numerous, but there are no land animals, except a few wild pigs.

History.—The Auckland Islands were discovered by an English merchant-ship in 1806, and were at that time uninhabited. They were soon found to be very advantageously situated for ships engaged in the whale-fishery, and in 1849 they were granted by the Crown of Great Britain to Messrs. Enderby, in consideration of the endeavours of their late father and themselves to promote geographical knowledge and to extend the whale-fishery.

Digitized by Google